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BUREAU OF EDUCATION

CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 1, 1891

CONTRIBUTIONS TO AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

EDITED BY HERBERT B. ADAMS

1891
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No. 10

HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIANA

BY

JAMES ALBERT WOODBURN, PH. D.

Professor of American History in the Indiana University, Sometime Fellow in History, Johns Hopkins University

WASHINGTON

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

1891

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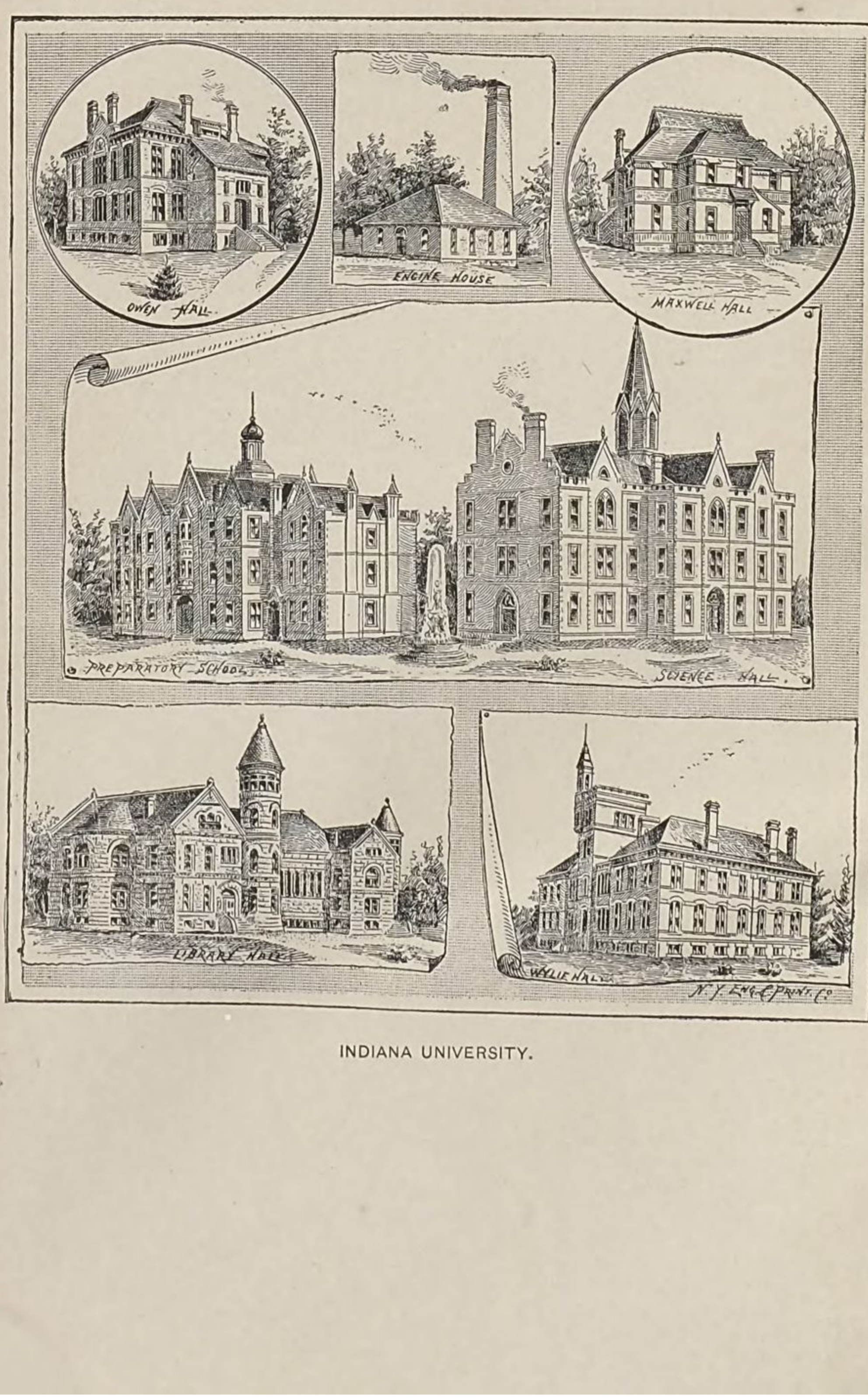

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"The people who expect to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization expect what never was and never can be."—THOMAS JEFFERSON.

"Popular government without popular education is but a prologue to a farce or to a tragedy, or to both."—JAMES MADISON.

"In our country and in our time no man is worthy the honored name of statesman who does not include the highest practicable education of the people in all his plans of administration. He may have eloquence, he may have knowledge of all history, diplomacy, jurisprudence; and by these he might claim in other countries the elevated rank of a statesman; but unless he speaks, plans, labors at all times and in all places for the culture and edification of the whole people, he is not, he can not be an American statesman."—HORACE MANN.

"If we work upon marble, it will perish; if we work upon brass, time will efface it; if we rear temples, they will crumble to the dust; but if we work upon immortal minds; if we imbue them with high principles, with just fear of God and love of their fellow men, we engrave on those tablets something which no time can efface, but which will brighten and brighten to all eternity."—ANON.

"The State—that is every man in the State—is helped by everything that makes the majority wiser, better, or more enlightened. The State stands pledged, through its common schools, its high schools, and its State universities, to give to each one of its boys—and in the West its girls also—the best education that he is willing to receive."—President DAVID STARR JORDAN, Indiana University.

"Education is an universal right, a prime necessity of man, and it is the duty of the State to provide it."—Dr. J. L. M. CURRY.

*"The Mississippi Valley, where a few years ago 'the danger of barbarism' was pointed out by a gifted orator, has already become a most important factor in the intellectual progress of the country. The center of population, as we know, has already crossed the Alleghany Mountains, and is not far from that central region of political influence from which so many of the highest officers of the Government have come. * * * The wilderness has been explored, the water power measured, the railroads built, the schools and the churches have been planted. We are beginning a new epoch of peace, thrift and enterprise, wiser and more sober as a nation than ever before. We shall attempt better and greater things than hitherto; we shall aspire to do our national part for the advancement of knowledge, in the confidence that thus humanity will be benefited, civilization extended, iniquity lessened, and barbarism subdued. We have a continent to teach."*—President D. C. GILMAN, Johns Hopkins University.

BIBLIOTHECA REGIA MONACENSIS

LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., February 27, 1889.

The Honorable the SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C.:

SIR: The monograph which I have the honor herewith to submit gives a sketch of the history of Higher Education in Indiana. It contains an outline of the free common school system of the State, a brief account of the State's educational history in the development of its common schools; and a historical account of the origin, growth, and development and the present condition of Indiana's various institutions for Higher Education. It calls attention to the early land legislation of the Continental Congress, and to the important influence of that legislation upon the future States of the Northwest; to the incidents and causes leading to the adoption of the Ordinance of 1787, and to the great importance of that Ordinance in the subsequent educational development of these commonwealths; and the sketch shows that from the earliest Territorial days until the present time, the relation of the State to education, both elementary and higher, has been close and constant. At no time has the State acknowledged that any department of education, from the elementary schools to the university, was beyond its province.

When Manasseh Cutler, Rufus Putnam, Samuel H. Parsons, and their coadjutors of Revolutionary days were planning the foundation for a free State beyond the Alleghanies, they held it to be the duty of the Government to give encouragement and support to religion and common schools. The West gained its first Puritan colony on the basis of this idea. Congressional endowment for schools and colleges was a part of the agreement asserted in the grant and settlement of western lands. Though the pressing financial straits of the old Confederacy may have been the decisive factor in securing the early land endowment, and though the policy of higher education by the State was not asserted by the Continental Congress, yet it is evident that no doubt existed in the minds of the Puritan colony who first settled the Ohio Valley, as to the duty and province of the State in education. They

began their first State on the basis of Government aid for higher learning. This was to be like the first written line of their fundamental charter. The people have never departed from that principle. Though the principle of American republicanism, asserted by the Continental Congress as a part of the earliest law of these Territories, namely, that special favors should be shown to no particular sects or modes of worship, and that no orderly and peaceable person should be molested, either on account of his religious sentiments, or for the lack of them, yet it was none the less a part of that fundamental law that religion, morality, and knowledge are to be forever encouraged.

Religious people of various names, encouraged by the assurance of Government support in providing schools for their children, sought homes in the West. While they were yet pioneers upon the frontiers of civilization, they began casting about them for ways and means to establish academies and colleges for the higher education. In the early years of Indiana history various religious denominations within her borders, with a spirit of zeal, courage, and self-sacrifice, founded institutions for the college training of young men. The Methodists established "Asbury," which has developed into the De Pauw University; the Presbyterians founded "Wabash" and "Hanover"; "Earlham" became a seat of learning for the Friends; Franklin College for the Baptists; and Butler University, founded under the name of the Northwestern Christian University, became the literary care of the Christian denomination. All these institutions from small beginnings have grown into prosperous condition. This sketch contains an account of their origin, their early experience, and their development. The influence which they have exerted for good, in extending knowledge, and in training men and women for worthy citizenship, is beyond estimate. No one who appreciates the importance of education in a government by the people will fail to recognize the great services of these institutions to the State.

The direct work of the State in higher learning is to be especially noticed.

The most interesting phase in the history and development of education in the West is to be seen in the attitude of the State. There never has been a time when the right of government to provide for education of some kind has been called in question by any considerable body of thinking people. Both the elementary and the higher education were provided for by many of the early colonies, especially by those of New England. And from the time of the first land grant for common school purposes by the Congress of 1785, State aid to education has been an acknowledged principle of the American people—even those of the most conservative individualism conceding, in some measure, the right and duty of the State to educate.

As to the extent to which State aid may be carried, and in what provinces it may operate, there is to be noticed a very wide difference

of opinion. The discussion on that subject runs back at least to Plato. Between the state of the public mind on this theme a hundred years ago and the prevailing opinion of to-day, a wide and significant difference is to be distinguished. In the public conception of the relation of the State to education, there have been many changes and much growth. The evolution of the State university, one of the most recent of educational phenomena, and also one of the most interesting, is the outcome of these changing opinions. It is the origin and history of State institutions for higher learning, to which this sketch directs especial attention. For this study the States of the Northwest offer a productive and peculiar field. Those who are interested in studying the principle of State control of education will find in such a sketch as this some interesting illustrations and some useful experience. The educational history of Indiana will serve to show how dominant is the idea that all functions of education have come to be vested in the State.

At the time these western Territories were settled, and the first of their States was admitted to the Union, it was a dominant idea in the public mind that primary education might well be promoted by the State, but that the higher education should be left to the control of religious denominations, or to private benevolence. It was generally understood that most of the great universities of the world had been established by the church, or by the king as the kind parental guardian of his people. It was forgotten that whatever church or prince had to give was derived for the most part from the people at large. Says President Charles Kendall Adams of Cornell University:

"Bologna, Paris, Oxford, Prague, Salamanca, and Cambridge were endowed in some cases by the church, in others by kings and princes, but in all cases with moneys which came directly or indirectly from the masses of the people. A peculiarity of the situation at the beginning of our national era was the fact that, while the State was inclined to keep its hold on the education of children, it appeared to be not unwilling to abandon its direction of the education of youth. In colonial and provincial days, the State, as we have seen, had all grades of education under its fostering care, but now that the churches began to contend with one another for the occupancy of the field in higher education, the State showed an unmistakable tendency to leave the endowment of the higher grades of schools to the churches. The doctrine was often put forward, and soon came to be very generally held, that the moral and religious character of students in the higher schools of learning would be unsafe unless such schools were under the direct control of the religious denominations—a doctrine built up on the singular postulate that children, so long as they are at an age that is peculiarly susceptible to religious impressions, may safely be left under the guidance of State schools, while at the moment they emerge from that age and enter upon a period less susceptible to such impressions, they must be under a more careful religious guidance than any which schools established by the State can afford."

This conditon of the public mind at the time of the earliest organization of States in the Northwest Territory led in large measure to decentralization of effort in the establishing and the fostering of colleges. A generation later, in the newer States, there was a tendency toward centralization in a single university. The result of the differing policies may be seen in the numerous colleges of Ohio on the one hand, and the development of the University of Michigan upon the other. Indiana illustrates the effects of these conflicting ideas. In the first part of the century her people were influenced largely by the early opinions. The tendency to-day is toward more vigorous State support, and toward centralization of effort. A study of such an educational history can not fail to be profitable to the student of educational problems. President Adams points out the significant fact, that there were two great statesmen of those early days, who, above all, appreciated the paramount importance of the establishment by the State of institutions for higher learning; who looked forward to an education of the people, for the people, and by the people. One of these statesmen was the founder of the University of Virginia; the other entertained the loftier idea of a National University at the National Capital.[1]

In the history of institutions for higher learning there are three phases to be easily distinguished. In the first place, they may be established, endowed, and controlled by religious denominations. This has been the case with most of the great institutions of the past. The second phase is to be seen as the result of private benevolence. Clark, Cornell, Vassar, and Johns Hopkins are examples. In the third phase we see the college and the university founded and maintained by the State. President Gilman, of the Johns Hopkins University, in a recent lecture at that institution on "The Relation of the State to Education," called attention to the pertinent fact that one tendency in higher education is very largely toward State maintenance and control; and he asserted that the northwestern States offered the best field for the study of the operation of this principle. More than twenty years ago, while professor in Yale College, in a discussion of the question, "What sort of schools ought the State to keep," President Gilman said:

"The State may say to private parties, you may maintain the schools, and we will inspect them; you shall have the responsibility, and we will bestow encouragement and bounties. This would give us universal private schools. Or the State may say to the churches, you may do this work in your own religious way, and we will oversee and assist your efforts. This would give us universal parish schools. Neither of these plans stands any chance of adoption among us, at least in this generation. Again, the State may say, we will maintain schools for the destitute and neglected only, and all who can afford to pay must look out for themselves. This would establish pauper schools—like pauper homes in the almshouses. Or, finally, the State may establish Public Schools

[1] Jefferson and Washington.

adapted to the wants of all. The discussion is practically narrowed to a choice between these two conflicting theories."

The essay from which I have quoted related chiefly, if not entirely, to the subject of common public schools for training in the elementary branches. But the same question pertains as well to schools of higher grades. Since then, we think the discussion has closed and the question, "What sort of schools ought the State to keep," is answered in the States of the Northwest by the unquestioned establishment of public schools of all grades open to all the people. The history of this establishment includes the origin and development of the State University, the State Normal School, and the State Agricultural and Mechanical Institute. This sketch is a study along these lines.

The sketch calls attention also to the development and value of the common school system. A writer in the English Westminster Review, for January, 1887, says:

"The distinguishing feature of public education in America is that it is free. Tuition in all public schools, whether elementary or high, is essentially gratuitous; in no other country has it been so clearly recognized that it is the duty of the State to provide free instruction for all the children of its people."

Emile de Laveleye, in speaking of the United States some years ago, said:

"It is not simply true that every one knows how to read, but every one does read for purposes of instruction, entertainment, participation in public affairs, direction of labor, gaining of money, or investigation of religious truth. The American Union in consequence uses up as much paper as France and England combined. Free to all, open to all, receiving upon its benches children of all classes, and all religious denominations, the Public School obliterates social distinctions, deadens religious animosities, roots out prejudices and antipathies, and inspires in all a love of their common country, and a respect for free institutions. It is the American public school which enables their people to assimilate so great a number of foreigners every year into their nationality."

The writer of this monograph believes that in no State is the American common school system to be seen to better advantage than in Indiana. The School Law of the State and its practical service have attracted favorable comment from various States of the Union, and professional educators frequently accord to it precedence over the laws of all other States. The scheme upon which the Indiana system operates and its official machinery are here presented.

The monograph also traces the early struggles of pioneers to establish a public institution for classical learning, even before the State became a member of the Union. General William Henry Harrison, at the "Boro of Vincennes," in 1807, became the President of the first Board of Trustees of the first institution of learning founded in Indiana Territory. This was the same year that Fulton's steamboat made its trial trip

on the Hudson; it was but four years after Jefferson had completed his purchase of Louisiana, an event so freighted with future consquences to the Nation; scarcely a decade had elapsed since Great Britain had withdrawn her forces from northwestern soil; nearly a quarter of a century was to elapse before the opening of the National Road offered easy immigration to the West; and it was longer still till the railway and the locomotive should appear. Along the banks of the Ohio and the Wabash, and on the larger interior streams, lived a few thousand whites, while many Indian tribes lived in rude huts on the river banks or roamed the forests of the Territory. Tecumseh and the Prophet were yet to reach the fulness of their power.

In these days, as this sketch shows, "with the howl of the wolf within hearing of their homes and the smoke of the wigwam within sight, the boys of the hardy settlers were learning to read, '*arma virumque cano.*'" The story of these times is surely not uninteresting in the history of education.

I respectfully recommend that this valuable monograph be published at the earliest possible day.

I have the honor to be, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

N. H. R. DAWSON,
Commissioner.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C., April 11, 1889.

SIR: I acknowledge the receipt of your letter of February 27, 1889, in which you recommend the publication of a monograph giving a sketch of higher education in the State of Indiana.

Authority is hereby given for the publication of the monograph provided there are funds in sufficient amount, available for such purpose.

Very respectfully,

JOHN W. NOBLE,
Secretary.

The COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION.

	Page.
Periods of Educational History	19
The Pioneers	19
Preparation for the Present School Law	19
Under the Constitution of 1851	20

CHAPTER I.—TERRITORIAL LEGISLATION OF THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

State Claims in the Northwestern Territory	21
Virginia's Cession	21
Bland's Proposition for Land Reservation	21
Ordinance of 1784	22
Pickering's Suggestions	22
Law of 1785	22
Nature of its Reservation	22
Motive of Congress	22
Growth of the Idea of Free Schools	22
Ordinance of 1787	23
Centennial Celebration of This Ordinance	23
Definition of the Ordinance	23
The Ordinance as a Model for Subsequent Legislation	23
George Rogers Clark	23
Diplomacy of Jay, Franklin, and Adams	23
The Northwest Territory	23
Maryland's Service to the Union	24
Land Cessions	24
The Ohio Company	24
Manasseh Cutler	24
Authorship of the Ordinance of 1787	24
Services of the Continental Congress	25
Two Great Documents	25
Provisions of the Ordinance:	
1. Free Soil	25
Slavery in Indiana Territory	25
2. Religious Freedom	27
3. Civil Liberty	27
4. Support and Encouragement for Education	27
Tribute to the Ordinance	27

CHAPTER II.—THE BEGINNINGS OF HIGHER EDUCATION: VINCENNES UNIVERSITY.

	Page.
Land Grant for University	29
Indiana Territorial Districts	29
Act of Congress, 1804	29
Gallatin locates a Seminary Township	29
Reservation of 1816	29
First Territorial Law for Education, 1806	30
Vincennes University	30
Trustees	30
Provision for Lottery: A Question in Morals	31
Samuel Scott	33
Knox County Seminary	33
Withdrawal of State Support, by Act of 1822	33
Litigation, the State *vs.* Vincennes University	33
Supreme Court Decision	34
Later History	35

CHAPTER III.—THE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF INDIANA.

I. The Old Constitution and the Common Schools:	
Early Inhabitants of Indiana Territory	36
St. Clair and Gibault	36
Other Testimony	36
Delay in Devising a School System	37
Obstacles and Impediments	37
Early Home-Hunters in Indiana	38
Growth of Institutions	38
Origin of the Free School System in the Minds of Territorial Legislators	38
Educational Provisions of the First Constitution, 1816	39
Early Legislation for Schools under this Constitution	40
Act of 1816	40
Act of 1821	41
Act of 1824	41
Act of 1833	41
Act of 1837	41
Era of Unsuccessful Effort	42
Educational Opinion	43
The Pioneer School	43
First Schools and Teachers in the Territory	43
"Early School Days:" Hon. B. C. Hobbs	44
Hardships of the Early Teacher	45
Nature of Educational Growth	45
The County Seminaries and Academies	45
The Seminary Teachers and Students	45
Benefits of the Seminaries	46
Agitation for Improved Common Schools	48
Local Self Government	48
Conditions Forcing Reform	49
Illiteracy in Indiana	49
Prof. Caleb Mills—An Educational Leader	50
Early Interest of Mills in Common Schools	50
"One of the People"	51
His Messages	51
Influence of the Agitation	53

Page.

I. The Old Constitution and the Common Schools—Continued.
Election for Free Schools 53
Another Message from "One of the People" 53
Act of 1849 53
State Treasurer and the School Superintendency 54

CHAPTER IV.—THE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM (Continued).

II. The New Constitution and the System as it is:
Constitutional Convention of 1851 55
Purpose of the Friends of Free Schools 55
Provision against Former Defects 55
The State Superintendency; Hon. Jno. I. Morrison 56
Educational Provisions of the Constitution 56
The School Funds 56
Congressional Township Fund 57
Common School Fund and its Sources:
Surplus Revenue Fund 59
The Bank Tax Fund 59
The Saline Fund 60
The Sinking Fund 60
The Seminary Fund 60
Total of Funds 61
Security of the Funds 61
The School Fund can not be Diverted 62
Taxation for Tuition 62
The General Government and Education in Indiana 62
School Law of 1852 62
Constitutional Difficulties in the Way of Tuition Levy 63
Opposition to Free Schools 63
Mr. E. P. Cole on the "Educational Conditions of Indiana," 1857 63
State Teachers' Association 65
School Journal 66
Outline of the Present System 66
Superintendent of Public Instruction 67
Duties 67
List of 68
State Board of Education 68
Suggestions for Enlargement of 68
Present Board 69
The County Superintendents 69
School Trustees 70
The Township Trustee 71
Present Condition of Indiana Schools 72
Union of Common Schools with the Higher Institutions 72
All Functions of Education Assumed by the State 73

CHAPTER V.—THE INDIANA SEMINARY.

Act of Admission 74
Constitution of 1816 74
Provision for University 74
Settlements in Indiana 75
Population 75
Boundary 75

	Page.
Foundation Day of the Seminary	75
The Seminary Township	75
Governor Jenning's Message	75
Passage of the Seminary Act	76
Bloomington, the Seat of the Seminary	76
Dr. David H. Maxwell	77
Prof. Baynard R. Hall	77
The "New Purchase"	77
Election of Professor Harney	78
Opposition	78
Report of Dr. Maxwell	78
Salaries	78
Board of Visitors	79
The Seminary becomes the State College	79

CHAPTER VI.—THE COLLEGE AND THE UNIVERSITY.

Act of Establishment	80
President Andrew Wylie	80
Course of Study	81
President Wylie's Services	81
Indiana University	81
School of Law	82
School of Medicine	82
Act of 1852	82
Later Presidents	82
Permanent Endowment	83
Annual Appropriations	83
Disasters by Fire	84
Too Early Sale of Lands	84
President Jordan	84
Courses of Study	85
Principles of the Courses	86
The University Idea	87
Organization	88
Trustees	88
Faculty	88
Location	89
Buildings	89
Expenses	90
Financial Condition	90
Library	90
Museum	91
Laboratories	92
Statistics of State Universities of the Northwest	95
Biographical Sketches	96

CHAPTER VII.—PURDUE UNIVERSITY.

Foundation and Development of	102

CHAPTER VIII.—THE INDIANA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

Location and Organization	123
Act of Institution	123

Page.
Purpose 123
Appropriation 123
Classes of Students 123
Objects and Methods of the School 124
Principles of its Operation 124

Chapter IX.—Rose Polytechnic Institute.

Purpose of the Institute 130
Chauncey Rose 130
Foundation of a Technical School 130
First Board of Trustees 131
Death of Rose 131
His Bequests 131
President Charles O. Thompson 131
President Mendenhall 132
Present Organization: Board of Managers 132
Faculty of Instruction 133
Plan of Instruction 133
Shops in Mechanics 133
Engineering 134
Mechanical Drawing Room 135
Chemical Laboratory 135
Physical Laboratory 135
Mathematics 136
Language 136
Library 136
Course of Study 136
Buildings and Grounds 137
Tuition Fees 137
Conditions of Admission 137
Alumni and Students 138

Chapter X.—The Denominational Institutions: De Pauw, Wabash, Butler.

Religion in Education 139
The Founding of Harvard 139
Yale 139
Influence of the Church in Indiana 139
De Pauw University:
Influence of Wesley, Francis Asbury, and Matthew Simpson 140
Governor Wallace at President Simpson's Installation, 1840 140
Sectarianism in Indiana 142
President Simpson's Inaugural Words 142
Charter 143
Location 143
Purpose of Incorporation 143
Early Years 144
Trustees 144
Financial Resources 145
Washington C. De Pauw 145

Page.

DE PAUW UNIVERSITY—Continued.
University Departments 146
1. College of Liberal Arts 146
2. School of Theology 146
3. School of Law 146
4. School of Military Science and Tactics 146
5. School of Music 146
6. School of Art 146
7. Greencastle Preparatory School 147
Buildings 147
Library 148
Attendance 149
Growth of the University 149
Plan of its Development 150
WABASH COLLEGE:
Foundation 152
Charter 152
Location 153
Buildings 153
Laboratories 154
Scientific Collections 154
Libraries 154
Courses of Study 155
Preparatory Department 155
Relations to School System of Indiana 155
Purpose of the College 155
The Presidents 156
Faculty 156
BUTLER UNIVERSITY:
Early Foundation 156
The Northwestern Christian University 156
Subscription of Stock 157
Commissioners 157
Elder O'Kane 158
Constructive Ideas 158
Historical Development 159
President Hoshour 160
Effect of the War 160
President Benton 160
President Burgess 160
Removal to Irvington 161
Endowment 161
Ovid Butler 161
The Demia Butler Chair 161
Commercial Department 161
The Faculty 162
Courses of Study 162

CHAPTER XI.—THE DENOMINATIONAL INSTITUTIONS (continued).

FRANKLIN COLLEGE:
Early Baptist Immigrants 163
Albert F. Tilton 164
The Manual Labor Institute 164

Page.

FRANKLIN COLLEGE—Continued.
Financial Straits 164
President Bailey 165
Suspension 165
Revival 165
President Wayland 165
President Stott 166
Growth 166
Departments 166
Faculty 167
Directors 167
Alumni 167
HANOVER COLLEGE:
Presbyterian Synod of Salem 168
Rev. John Finley Crowe 168
Hanover Academy 168
Theological School 168
College Charter 168
Manual Labor System 169
President Blythe 169
President McMaster 169
"Madison University" 169
Dr. Crowe 170
Presidents Scovel and Edwards 170
President Heckman 171
College Courses 171
Electives 172
Benefactors of Hanover 172
Faculty 172
EARLHAM COLLEGE:
Quaker Element in the Early Population 173
Systematic Measures for Education among the Friends 173
Friends' Boarding School 174
Popular Contributions 174
Growth of the College 174
Coeducation 174
Religion in the College 175
Faculty 175
Buildings and Equipment 175
Biological Laboratory 175
Parry Hall 176
Astronomical Observatory 176
Boarding Department 176
Courses of Study 176
Conditions of Admission 176
NOTRE DAME:
Early Jesuits in the Northwest 182
Father Badin 182
Location of St. Mary's 183
First College Building 183
Opening of the College 183
Rev. E. Sorin, President 183
Growth 183
Disaster 184
Present Condition 184

Page.

NOTRE DAME—Continued.
Science 184
Religion 185
Science Hall 185
Mechanical Engineering 185
Gymnasium 185
Musical College 185
College Course 185
Fort Wayne College 186
Moore's Hill College 189
Hartsville College 191
Minor Institutions 192

CHAPTER XII.—THE INDEPENDENT NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Early Normal Schools 193
Growing Demand for Normal Training 193
Teachers poorly Educated 193
Peculiar Demand 194
Class of Students 194
VALPARAISO NORMAL SCHOOL.
Organization 194
Departments 195
Nature of the Work 195
Influence of the School 197
President H. B. Brown 197
CENTRAL NORMAL COLLEGE, Danville:
Organization 197
Growth 197
Faculty 198
Departments 198
Value of the Work 198
President Hargrave 198
SOUTHERN INDIANA NORMAL, Mitchell:
Organization 199
Purposes 199
Faculty 199
Extent of the Work 199
Similar Institutions and their Influence 200
CONCLUSION:
Growth of Two Generations 200
State Policy in Education 200

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
Indiana University	1
Preparatory School and Society Halls	82
Biological Laboratory	84
Chemical Laboratory "A"	86
Wylie Hall	88
Owen Hall	90
New Library Building	90
Physical Laboratory	92
Plan of Chemical Laboratory	92
Purdue University	104
Agricultural Hall	112
Interior of Botanical Laboratory, U. S. Experiment Station	112
Plan of First Floor, Mechanical Laboratory	114
Plan of First Floor, Electric Laboratory	117
Plan of Second Floor, Electric Laboratory	118
Plans of Biological and Chemical Laboratories	119
The State Normal School	124
Rose Polytechnic Institute:	
Machine Shops	130
Machine Shops, Interior View	134
Academic Building	134
Free-hand Drawing Room	134
Physical Laboratory "A"	136
Laboratory for Quantitative Analysis	136
De Pauw University:	
Main Building, East College	140
West College	142
Music Hall	146
McKim Observatory	148
Ladies' Hall	148
Hanover College	168
Earlham College:	
Parry Hall	174
Lecture Room, Parry Hall	174
Lindley Hall	176
Laboratory of Analytical Chemistry	176
Notre Dame:	
First College Building	182
Before the Fire of 1879	184
Bird's-eye View of the New Notre Dame	184
Central Normal College, Danville	198

HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIANA.

INTRODUCTION.

There are three distinct periods of educational history in Indiana:

First, from the year of the celebrated Ordinance of 1787, until the adoption of the first Constitution at the time of the admission of the State into the Union in 1816.

Second, the time of the operation of the old Constitution from 1816 to 1851.

Third, from 1851, when the new Constitution was adopted until the present time.

The history of the first period is the record of pioneers, in their attempt under the fostering care of the Federal Government to make provision for the future education of the people under the care of the State. The period in our continental history preceding and including the Ordinance of 1787, recorded legislation of vital importance in the subsequent history of Indiana Education. The record of that time belongs as much to the history of the other States of the Northwest as to that of Indiana; but no sketch of Indiana educational history would be acceptable without some appreciation of this influence. To that early legislation and its influence we call attention in the first chapter of this work.

The second period was one of preparation, during which the people were getting ready for the fulfillment in law of the educational provision of their first Constitution. That Constitution asserted that "it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in regular gradation from township schools to a State university wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all." Circumstances seemed not to "permit" while that Constitution endured. Not that the Constitution was at fault, but preparation for common schools in "regular gradation" was necessary. That period of foundation-laying lasted a generation. For thirty-five years this provision of the Constitution was left unsatisfied by the general assembly of the State. The college, the academy, and the seminary had yet to lay the foundation for free common schools. This was the period of the rise and growth of the State and sectarian colleges and of the county seminaries. School lands were

taken care of, but schools for the people were not provided. The school fund was growing and was jealously guarded, and the enactment of a few inefficient school laws indicated the growth of educational sentiment, but no uniform system of free schools was instituted for the State until after the adoption of the new Constitution. For five years or more before the constitutional convention met in 1850 an agitation was going on for free and uniform schools. Colleges and academies had produced the agitators. One of these college agitators, during the years from 1846 to 1851, as we have occasion to relate in subsequent pages, addressed some forcible messages to the legislature. Speaking as "one of the people" his purpose was to give to the legislators an adequate idea of the dangers and evils of the existing illiteracy, and to press upon them their duty under the circumstances. By the existing law there was no uniformity throughout the State, or even throughout a single county or township in educational matters. The maintenance of schools depended upon the whims of the district. Feuds, apathy, or opposition caused abandonment of education in many communities. The "pure democracy" of the New England town did not always succeed in the West. Not all communities in Indiana were like New England. Indiana stood twenty-third in the list of States in regard to popular education, with only three slave States below her. Such was the condition of the State when the new Constitution was adopted in 1851.

It has been during this third period, since 1851, and under the wise and liberal provisions of this second Constitution, that the present advanced position of the State in educational affairs has been attained. The essential fact in this period is that the fundamental law not only required that the educational system of the State should be general and uniform, but also forbade the enactment of local or special laws for supporting common schools. In 1852 these provisions were enacted into a law containing the germs of the present system. This act, after a few revisions under the guidance of Supreme Court decisions, was embodied in the act of 1865, the last comprehensive statute on the subject of common schools.

Our sketch will include a brief analysis of this system of schools. But before directing attention to that theme, or before attempting to trace the growth of the higher education, we must turn to the early influences which made this development possible. To understand properly the educational history of any of the States of the Northwest we must recall the organization of the territory from which they were formed. This will lead us to the influence in the Northwest of the men of the Revolution and of the Congress of the Old Confederation.

CHAPTER I.

TERRITORIAL LEGISLATION OF THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

At the close of the Revolutionary War four States presented claims to the same or different parts of the Northwest Territory.

Massachusetts and Connecticut claimed by their original royal charters all the land between their northern and southern parallels from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River.

New York relied chiefly upon her rights derived from the Six Nations.

Virginia, quoting the old charter granted by James I in 1609, which gave her the land north and south along the coast from Old Point Comfort "up into the land north and west from sea to sea," and asserting the more tangible right of possession derived from the success of her expedition under George Rogers Clark, embraced by her claim what was then our entire Northwest.

The settlement of these conflicting claims was one of the most important questions with which the peace Congress of the old Confederacy had to deal. Through the courageous and far-seeing policy of Maryland the Articles of Confederation had not been allowed to go into operation until assurance had been given by the claimant States that this land, "won by the common blood and treasure of all," should become the common possession of the United States. The cessions guaranteed on the part of New York as early as 1780 and by Virginia as early as 1781 were completed by Connecticut's cession, September 30, 1786, with the exception of her "Western Reserve," which she held until 1800.

On June 5, 1783, Colonel Bland, of Virginia, moved in Congress to accept Virginia's cession of her northwestern land to the General Government on the terms which Virginia had offered. These terms were, chiefly, that Congress should guarantee to Virginia the possession of the territory now known as Kentucky. His motion included a proposition for the division of the Northwestern Territory into districts suitable for prospective States and for a reservation of land for the founding of seminaries of learning.

This proposition was the first one looking toward an appropriation of public lands in the new Territory for the support of education. When Virginia afterward made her cession without condition, the proposi-

tion of Colonel Bland was not revived by Mr. Jefferson in his ordinance of 1784. But on May 7 of that year, a little more than a fortnight after the passage of his ordinance, Jefferson reported to Congress a bill for ascertaining the mode of locating and disposing of lands in the Western Territory. This bill received no attention from Congress till March 4, 1785, when it was reported from the committee unchanged. Timothy Pickering noticed that no provision was made in the bill for schools and academies, and in a letter to Rufus King, a member of the committee, Pickering called attention to the fact. On April 12, 1785, the committee reported the bill with many modifications and additions. During the month's debate which followed, the clause which sought to give public support to religion was stricken out and on May 20, 1785, the bill became a law.

This was the first law of Congress relating to education within the present Territory of Indiana. In the law were these significant words: "There shall be reserved from sale the lot No. 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools within the said township." "This reservation," says Professor Knight, "marks the beginning of the policy which, uniformly observed since then, has set aside one thirty-sixth of the land in each new State for the maintenance of common schools."[1]

The reservation was, no doubt, in the nature of an inducement to purchasers, for the pioneer settlers who were proposing to leave their homes for the wilderness were seeking the most favorable terms they could secure, and the easiest way Congress had to meet its pressing creditors was by payment in lands. Whatever may have been the motive of Congress, whether it acted for revenue only or from a public-spirited purpose of establishing and fostering a system of State education, it is certain that the early settlers in the Ohio Valley were firm believers in general and higher education by the State. If they dictated terms to a needy Congress, it may still be said that the terms were wise and generous and from a public spirit, and that the Congress acted not without meritorious design. This act of the Continental Congress may be looked upon as the beginning of State education in the West.

The system of education seen in Indiana, and which we describe in the following pages, did not, as we have intimated, spring up in a day. Its rise and progress may not be said to be the result of any single legislative act nor the outcome of any one man's genius and foresight. The early law of 1785 to which we have referred does not contain the permanent principle on which these Commonwealths have developed a system of free education. We must look elsewhere for the durable basis upon which the structure has been reared.

Somewhere in law, by educational foresight, a foundation was laid which has made this development possible. The tendency to trace the origin of institutions to some one act, opinion, or law has become a

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[1] The Northwest Territory; Papers of the Am. Hist. Assoc., Vol. I.

noticeable habit with the historic writer. But seldom, we repeat, may an institutional development be truly called the product of a single parliamentary or legislative enactment. Yet, like the institutions of civil liberty, the educational institutions of the Northwest Territory have their Magna Charta. That great charter is found in

THE ORDINANCE OF 1787.

The school boys and girls of the "Old Northwest" have been learning in recent years the history and the importance of this celebrated ordinance. The hundredth anniversary of its passage has been the occasion of calling the attention of the Commonwealths which it has blessed to the wisdom and benefits of its provisions. On the evening of July 13, 1887, more than 5,000 American teachers met in national convention at Chicago, the present metropolis of the Northwest Territory, to celebrate the centennial anniversary of this last act of the old Confederate Congress. It is not the purpose of this sketch to give a history of the events leading to that enactment, nor to attempt to estimate adequately its great consequences. But some notice of its wise provisions and a brief outline of the influences leading to its adoption may not be impertinent in this connection.

What was this celebrated ordinance, and why has it become so famous?

In itself the ordinance was but an act of the Continental Congress providing for the government of the Northwest Territory. It bears the distinction of being the model upon which nearly all subsequent Territorial governments were organized. The territory to which it applied, coming to England by the treaty of 1763 from the undefined claim of France, known as Louisiana, had come to the States of the Confederacy in 1783 by the definitive treaty of peace which acknowledged our independence. The expedition of George Rogers Clark had secured possession of the disputed soil, and it was the right of possession which was the determining fact in the disposal of this region by the treaty closing the Revolution. It was the energy of Clark and the diplomacy of Jay, Franklin, and Adams which secured for us the great Northwest.

But the Territory came to the States severally and not to the General Government. It embraced all territory south of the present boundaries of British Canada, east of the Alleghanies, north of the Ohio, and east of the Mississippi, comprising the now flourishing States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan, and that part of Minnesota east of the Mississippi.[1] The lines of the conflicting claims of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and Virginia ran across these lands. Their original charters usually gave them occasion to claim from sea

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[1]Since the ordinance applied only to the land *north* of the Ohio, the laws of Kentucky were afterward operative *across* that river to low-water mark. By the cutting of the current in the lower part of the river some interesting land litigation has arisen between Indiana and Kentucky.

to sea. Maryland, one of the landless States, had wisely insisted as a condition of her acceptance of the articles of confederation that the territory secured by the common toil and suffering should be ceded to the common possession and control. The claimant States, led by New York as early as February, 1780, expressed their willingness to consent to the grant, and on March 1, 1784, the Confederate Congress, accepting the proposed grants in disregard of the claims of the other States or relying upon their pledges, received the Northwestern Territory from the delegates of Virginia. Virginia had fitted out Clark's expedition without the help of the Continental Congress, and she held his success as a crowning title to the land. The Congress was now under obligation to provide for the government of the Northwest. The ordinance of 1784, prepared by Jefferson, was the immediate result, and was the first attempt of Congress in this direction.

Except as the basis and the forerunner of later laws and the greater ordinance, the draft of Jefferson is not important in this sketch. It opened the way and helped to make straight the path for the more important enactment of three years later. The immediate occasion for the ordinance of 1787 was the proposition of the Ohio Company of New England to purchase lands in the West. Gen. Rufus Putnam, Dr. Manasseh Cutler, and Gen. Samuel H. Parsons, as the authorized directors of this company, were pressing Congress for a favorable offer of the public lands. As early as 1783 some Revolutionary soldiers of New England had conceived the project of forming a new State west of the Ohio, and Timothy Pickering had outlined a plan for its government. Early in 1786 they effected an organization and applied directly to Congress for liberal terms of purchase. The financial straits of the Continental Government tended to the promotion of their project; Congress was anxious to sell, the land company was anxious to buy. But the directors of the proposed new State had well-formed opinions as to the conditions upon which they were willing to purchase Government land, to leave their New England homes and to settle in the "far West." They were looking to the building of a free State, and it was reserved for Manasseh Cutler, their agent in the purchase, to secure in the fundamental law of the Territory a stable foundation for future Commonwealths.

AUTHORSHIP OF THE ORDINANCE.

The controversy over the authorship of the ordinance is interesting only to technical and particular students of history. "Great measures," says Mr. J. P. Dunn, in his history of Indiana, "are seldom the fruit of any one mind." It is well said in connection with the ordinance of 1787. Timothy Pickering is credited with the earliest suggestions of some of its fundamental features. Thomas Jefferson outlined the general plan for Territorial governments three years before. Nathan Dane, a careful and painstaking lawyer, as chairman of the committee of Con-

gress, had charge of the ordinance on its passage, and was, no doubt, its legal draughtsman. Manasseh Cutler, the wise and far-sighted agent of pioneer land purchasers, secured particular and satisfactory amendments, and the original sixth article of the great compact forever forbidding slavery north of the Ohio river, is found in his handwriting. The enactment was the result of a consensus of wisdom and the experience of a series of years in land legislation. Its creation and passage are a part of the record of the Continental Congress, and the honor connected with it belongs largely to that historic body.

Owing to the impotence of its declining years no great honor or renown attached, in the early opinion of the American people, to the successor of the Revolutionary Congress. Its name had become almost a synonym for impotence. For nearly a decade of years it had dragged its weary length along without power, without energy, without respect, almost without a local habitation and a name. Later years have rescued its memory from an unmerited disrespect. Yet this representative Congress of a weak confederacy was the same Congress, in effect, which had organized resistance to the mother country, had gathered the Colonial army, had given Washington his commission, had negotiated foreign assistance, and had declared and achieved our national independence. A small assembly of great statesmen, sometimes for months unable to muster a quorum, it was a body Constitutionally so weak as to be despised, but personally so strong that, with all its Constitutional impediments, it was able to perform a work which has won the veneration of their posterity and the admiration of mankind. The records of the Continental Congress contain two remarkable documents which alone entitle the body to a memorable place in history. One of these is the Declaration of Independence, the other the Ordinance of 1787. The same body laid the foundation and prepared the way for the Constitution, and these three documents, in the opinion of Hon. George F. Hoar, "make the three title deeds of American history."[1]

The great statute of '87, the last six articles of which are in the nature of a compact between the original States and the people of the new Territories, contained for the prospective States some solemn guarantees. Upon these guarantees rests the fame of the ordinance. It guaranteed to their people forever:

1. FREE SOIL.

"There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said Territory otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."

These historic and familiar words, which became the model for subsequent restrictions upon slavery, had been inserted by Jefferson in his Ordinance of 1784, but as his design covered the Southwest as well as the Northwest Territory, Congress refused to ratify the restriction. When, three years later, the words became part of the law of the land, they

[1] Oration at Centennial Celebration of the founding of Marietta, Ohio, April, 1888.

made slavery forever illegal in the Northwest Territory. At least, their enactment into law made the future permanence of slavery impossible in these States. They were also the words of the famous Wilmot Proviso which attempted the rescue from slavery of our Mexican acquisition in 1846 and 1847; and subsequently they were made a part of our Constitution by the 13th amendment, in 1865.

Mr. J. P. Dunn in his late admirable sketch of the early history of Indiana has pointed out the extent to which slavery existed in the Indiana Territory. The Territorial statutes are evidence enough upon that point. In 1796, as Judge T. M. Cooley has made known,[1] the slaves in the Northwest, "as regards the legal question affecting their liberty," were divided into three classes: (1) Those subject to French owners previous to the cession to England in 1763; (2) Those held by British owners at the time of Jay's Treaty in 1796; (3) Those brought from States in which slavery was lawful. The first class had become merely an historical reminiscence; English ownership had transmitted an inconsiderable and a rapidly decreasing number—the only legal slaves that ever existed in the Territory after its possession by the United States; it was the third class, that which came by immigration, chiefly from Virginia and Kentucky, which presented a slave problem to Indiana.

The "act concerning servants," approved by Governor Harrison September 17, 1807, bears testimony to a social condition from which slavery was by no means debarred. The language concerning "negroes" "mulattoes" and the "purchase of servants," the provisions concerning indentured servants, those allowing masters to bring their slaves into the Territory and to hold them in servitude until a specified age, attest the *fact* of slavery. But we do not find that any legal decision ever gave sanction to such enactments. In the course of events they would certainly have been set aside in a constitutional way; and even though the majority of the people of Indiana had not soon voted to become a free Territory and a free State, it would have been decided as it was in Michigan that "a right of property in the human species can not exist in this Territory." Slavery could not exist in the face of the ordinance of 1787. The great compact guaranteed the soil in fact, as well as in theory, to free labor and free men. The eloquence of Senator Hoar at the centennial anniversary of the founding of Marietta, Ohio, in April 1888, is in accord with the truth of history: "When the older States or nations, where the chains of human bondage have been broken, shall utter the proud boast 'With a great sum obtained I this freedom,' each sister of this imperial group—Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin—may lift her queenly head with the yet prouder answer, 'But I was free born.'"

The importance of this provision the events of history have in a measure revealed. Without it the story of education in Indiana as it is today would not have been written.

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[1] Cooley's History of Michigan.

2. RELIGIOUS FREEDOM.

This, also, the ordinance guaranteed: "No person, demeaning himself in a peaceable, orderly manner, shall ever be molested on account of his mode of worship or religious sentiments, in the said territory." This was a step in advance of the general sentiment of the age. Establishment and religious discrimination had not yet been driven out of New England. In this respect Virginia had gone to the front. Jefferson, Madison, and Mason had been contending for some years in the Old Dominion for religious freedom. That which they had so great a struggle to secure under their own local government they thus helped to guarantee to the populations of future States. The influence of the fact on social progress and education is best understood by those who most appreciate the significance of the idea of religious freedom in universal history.

3. CIVIL LIBERTY.

The benefits of habeas corpus, of trial by jury, of reasonable fines, and moderate bail, of all judicial proceedings according to the common law, these rights secured to Englishmen by Magna Charta and the glorious revolution of 1688, and which are embodied in the first eight amendments of our Constitution known as the "American Bill of Rights," were incorporated in the constitutional law of the Northwest Territory.

4. SUPPORT AND ENCOURAGEMENT FOR EDUCATION.

"Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged."

This guarantee is as familiar to the people of the Northwest as the language of the Declaration, or of the Constitution. It became the basis and inspiration of the educational life of these States. Like the first line of a written Constitution it bound each State, as it came into the Union, to recognize its obligation to carry out this provision.

Such was the last act of the old Continental Congress.[1] It was an exercise of national sovereignty, as Madison said, "without the least color of constitutional authority." It has been called "a usurpation to meet an emergency." That such an exercise of authority passed without serious objection shows the growth of sentiment in the States toward the national idea. Like Mr. Jefferson's later extra-constitutional act in the purchase of Louisiana, this assumption of power in imposing a form of government upon the Northwest has been fraught with such momentous consequences for good that the act is remembered as the

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[1] The two other articles of compact in the ordinance related to the division of the territory into States, and asserted the perpetual jurisdiction of the United States over the people of the new territories as a part of the Federal Union.

chief glory of the closing years of the Congress. The act was ratified by the first Congress under the Constitution. The eulogies which it has received, though zealous in admiration, yet may not be called extravagant. Mr. Webster has said of it, "We are accustomed to praise the law-givers of antiquity; we help to perpetuate the fame of Solon and Lycurgus; but I doubt whether one single law of any law-giver, ancient or modern, has produced effects of more distinct, marked, and lasting character than the ordinance of 1787. We see its consequences at this moment and we shall never cease to see them while the Ohio shall flow." Senator Hoar has called it one of the acts "which devoted this nation forever to equality, to education, to religion, and to liberty." Judge Timothy Walker, of Ohio, has described it as "one of those matchless specimens of sagacious foresight which even the reckless spirit of innovation would not venture to assail." Chief Justice Chase, in his Introduction to the Statutes of Ohio, says: "Never, probably, in the history of the world, did a measure of legislation so accurately fulfill, and yet so mightily exceed, the anticipation of the legislators. The ordinance has well been described as having been a pillar of cloud by day and of fire by night in the settlement and government of the Northwestern States. Dr. G. V. N. Lothrop, of the University of Michigan, says of this legislation, "In advance of the coming millions it had, as it were, shaped the earth and the heavens of a sleeping empire. The great charter of the Northwest had consecrated it irrevocably to human freedom, to religion, learning, and free thought. This one act is the most dominant one in our whole history since the landing of the Pilgrims. It is the act which became decisive in the great rebellion. Without it, so far as human judgment can discover, the victory of free labor would have become impossible."

Attention has been directed, at so great a length, to this law because it is fundamental to all subsequent legislation in the Territory and the State. Its influence has been decisive, not only in determining legislation, but in shaping thought and opinion upon popular education, and in giving direction to the spirit of the people. Without a comprehension of its provisions and its influences the subsequent history of education in the State can hardly be explained. It may be safely said that the free school system of the State is the natural, if not the inevitable, outgrowth of this radical and organic law.

We give in a subsequent chapter a brief analysis of Indiana's system of education.

CHAPTER II.

THE BEGINNINGS OF HIGHER EDUCATION—VINCENNES UNIVERSITY.

After the passage of the ordinance of 1787 Congress still hesitated to offer satisfactory terms of land sales to the Ohio Company. Conditions offered in an ordinance, July 19 of that year, provided that the only reservation was to be the lot No. 16, as provided for in the law of 1785. Dr. Cutler insisted upon more favorable terms and he made known to Congress the only conditions upon which the Ohio Company was willing to purchase. By his perseverance and determination he gained for the State of Ohio, by the law of July 23, 1787, two additional townships for the perpetual support of a university. The precedent here established gave Indiana an opportunity to claim a similar donation from Congress, which, it will be seen, she afterwards obtained.

Indiana Territory was organized in the year 1800. In 1804, March 26, Congress passed an act entitled, "An act making provision for the disposal of the public lands in the three land districts, viz, Detroit, Kaskaskia, and Vincennes." In 1805 the Detroit district became the Territory of Michigan; in 1809 Kaskaskia became Illinois, embracing substantially the present States of Illinois and Wisconsin. The act of 1804 provided for the sale of certain lands, "with the exception of the section numbered sixteen, which shall be reserved in each township for the support of schools within the same; also, of an entire township in each of the three described tracts of country or districts to be located by the Secretary of the Treasury for the use of a seminary of learning."

On the 10th October, 1806, Albert Gallatin, then Secretary of the Treasury, located township No. 2 south, range 11 east, now in Gibson County, Indiana, for the use of a seminary of learning, as required by this act. We will refer in this connection to the second reservation of land by Congress for the purpose of higher education in Indiana. By an act to provide for the admission of Indiana as a State of the Union, Congress provided, April 19, 1816, "that one entire township, which shall be designated by the President of the United States, in addition to the one heretofore reserved for that purpose, shall be reserved for the use of a seminary of learning to be appropriated solely to the use of such seminary," by the legislature of the State. Mr. Monroe, then President, designated the township, which is now named Perry, in the county which received the name of Monroe by reason of the President's selection.

The first representative law-making power in the Northwest Territory promptly turned its attention toward carrying out the declaration of the ordinance of 1787 in regard to encouraging "good government and the happiness of mankind" by the promotion of education. The Ohio University at Athens was founded by the Territorial legislature January 9, 1802.[1] This was nearly a year before Ohio's admission as a State. The Indiana Territory, organized as we have said in the year 1800, comprised all of the Northwest Territory except the more thickly settled and lately separated Territory of Ohio. The same liberal policy toward education was early instituted in the Territory of Indiana, in harmony with the purpose of the early ordinance. The first general assembly of the Territory "begun and held at the Borough of Vincennes" passed "an act to incorporate an university in the Indiana Territory," which act was approved by Governor William Henry Harrison, November 29, 1806. The words preceding the "Be it enacted" are as follows:

"Whereas the independence, happiness, and energy of every republic depends (under the influence of the destinies of Heaven) upon the wisdom, virtue, talents, and energy of its citizens and rulers;

"And whereas science, literature, and the liberal arts contribute in an eminent degree to improve those qualities and requirements;

"And whereas learning hath ever been found the ablest advocate of genuine liberty, the best supporter of rational religion, and the source of the only solid and imperishable glory which nations can acquire;

"And forasmuch as literature and philosophy furnish the most useful and pleasing occupations, improving and varying the enjoyments of prosperity, affording relief under the pressure of misfortune, and hope and consolation in the hours of death;

"And considering that in a commonwealth where the humblest citizen may be elected to the highest public offices, and where the Heaven-born prerogative of the right to elect and to reject is retained and secured to the citizens, the knowledge which is requisite for a magistrate and elector should be widely diffused;"

It was then enacted by the legislative council and house of representatives that an university be, and is hereby, instituted and incorporated within this Territory, "to be called and known by the name or style of the Vincennes University." The following persons designated by the ordinance composed the first board of trustees: William Henry Harrison, John Gibson, Thomas T. Davis, Henry Vanderburgh, Waller Taylor, Benjamin Parke, Peter Jones, James Johnson, John Baddollet, John Rice Jones, George Wallace, William Bullitt, Elias McNamee, Henry Hurst, Gen. W. Johnston, Francis Vigo, Jacob Kuykendoll, Samuel McKee, Nathaniel Ewing, George Leach, Luke Decker, Samuel Gwathmey, and John Johnson. Governor Harrison was elected president of the board. This body was empowered to make by-laws, ordinances, and regulations

[1] Laws N. W. Territory, 1802, p. 161.

for its own government not inconsistent with the charter or laws of the Territory or of the United States. The trustees were to establish "as speedily as may be, an university within the borough of Vincennes, and to appoint to preside over and govern it, a president and not exceeding four professors for the instruction of youth in Latin, Greek, French, and English languages, mathematics, natural philosophy, logic, rhetoric, and the law of nature and of nations." The faculty was empowered to grant, with the consent of the trustees, degrees in the liberal arts to such students as were considered proficient in learning. It was also enacted that "no particular tenets of religion shall be taught in said university," but it was provided that whenever it was deemed necessary for the "good of the university and for the progress of education, departments of theology, law, and physic might be established, and whenever the funds of the university permitted, all students were to be educated gratis in all or any of the branches they might require."[1]

Two other sections deserve to be quoted entire:

"And whereas the establishment of an institution of this kind in the neighborhood of the aborigines of the country may tend to the gradual civilization of the rising generation, and if properly conducted be of essential service to themselves, and contribute greatly to the cause of humanity and brotherly love, which all men ought to bear to each other, of whatever color, and tend also to preserve that friendship and harmony which ought to exist between the Government and the Indians: Be it therefore enacted, and it is hereby enjoined on the said trustees to use their utmost endeavors to induce the said aborigines to send their children to the university for education, who, when sent, shall be maintained, clothed, and educated at the expense of said institution."[1]

"Be it enacted, That the said trustees, as soon as in their opinion the funds of the said institution will admit, are hereby required to establish an institution for the education of females, and to make such by-laws and ordinances for said institution and the government thereof as as they may think proper."

But the young Indians, it seems, had a greater relish for following Tecumseh on the war path than for the civilization of books. Only one Indian was ever allured within the walls of the institution. The young warriors, as was remarked at the time, "showed a far greater natural predisposition for disfurnishing the outside of other people's heads than for furnishing the insides of their own."

After this indication of their philanthropic interest and Christian sympathy with their aboriginal neighbors, we find in this educational law of the Territorial legislators the further enactment, which we must transcribe in full:

"That for the support of the aforesaid institution and for the purpose of procuring a library and the necessary philosophical and experimental apparatus, agreeably to the eighth section of this law, there shall be raised a sum not exceeding $20,000 by a lottery, to be carried

[1] Indiana Territorial Laws.

into operation as speedily as may be after the passage of this act, and that the trustees of the said university shall appoint five discreet persons, either of their body or other persons, to be managers of the said lottery, each of whom shall give security, to be approved of by said trustees, in such sum as they shall direct, conditioned for the faithful discharge of the duty required of said managers; and the said managers shall have power to adopt such schemes as they may deem proper to sell the said tickets ['tickets' had not been 'said'] and to superintend the drawing of the same and the payment of the prizes; and that as often as the said managers shall receive $1,000 they shall deposit the same in the hands of the treasurer of the said board of trustees, and the said managers and trustees shall render an account of their proceedings therein at the next session of the legislature after the drawing of said lottery."

This clause legalizing a public lottery in the name of higher education was the last of peculiar interest in this long law, except that the "professors during their professorship" and the "students while at college" were to be exempt from militia duty.

We do not find that much interest was subsequently taken in the successful operation of the lottery. Public sentiment in the State, no doubt, soon condemned such a financial policy, and it soon ceased to operate. It was revived and used as a means of income to the Vincennes University at times in later years, but never without protest, and the institution of the lottery has long since been finally abolished. This practice, formerly existent in many American States, has permanently disappeared from every State of the Union save one.

Any one who is attracted to questions of casuistry will find in this early legislation some interesting reflections. Perhaps these pioneers thought the end justified the means; or it might have been they thought that, as corporations have no souls, so nobody was answerable to any power, temporal or eternal, for the moral conduct of the State. There is evidence that they held the belief, in harmony with a doctrine often seen in practice in later days, that the State might do what, by the law of right and the public welfare, the individual should be prevented from doing. For we find in the Territorial laws an enactment, approved September 17, 1807, to the effect that—

"No person, in order to raise money or other property for himself or another, shall publicly or privately put up a lottery of blanks and prizes, to be drawn or adventured for, or any prize or anything to be raffled or played for; *whoever shall offend herein shall forfeit, to the use of the Territory, the whole sum of money or property proposed to be raised or gained.*"

It may be that the Territory intended by this means to guard the moral welfare of the people; or it is barely possible that it rather proposed to allow no infringement upon its peculiar monopoly. At least the legislature proposed to see to it that if the lottery device existed at all, the profits should accrue to the public, in the interests of education.

Thus, Vincennes University was the first institution for higher learning established by and under the act of the Territorial public; and it was the first such institution of learning within the limits of Indiana. To it was given the seminary township reserved by the act of Congress in 1804, and power was granted to sell 4,000 acres and to receive bequests, and to hold not exceeding 100,000 acres of land. In the wilderness, among hardy pioneers, before the State took its place in the Union, and years before any system of common schools for its people had birth, the representatives of the people made provision for the higher education.

The Territorial University at Vincennes was not fully open for instruction till 1810. Rev. Samuel Scott was its first president. Mr. Scott preached the first Protestant sermon in Indiana, and founded the first Protestant church in the State, the "Indiana Church" (Presbyterian) as it was called. He opened a private school in Vincennes in 1808, and this school became the nucleus of the university. To secure sufficient income for the institution it was allowed that elementary branches be taught in connection with it. The school at Vincennes was in continuous existence, in some capacity, until it was converted into the "Knox County Seminary" in 1825, an act which was afterwards declared to be illegal. But during these years, from 1810 to 1825, while it was nominally a public institution, it received no support from State taxation; its trustees had allowed their organization to lapse, and the State entirely withdrew care and attention from its affairs. In 1822 an act was passed by the general assembly for the practical confiscation of its lands for the support of the new "State seminary" at Bloomington, and in 1824 the State formally declared the Vincennes institution extinct. This act of 1822 recited the fact that the trustees of Vincennes University "had sold portions of such lands, and had negligently permitted the corporation to die without having executed deeds to purchasers, and the act provided for the sale of the Seminary township in Gibson County, and for the use of the money as a "productive fund for the benefit of the State seminary," previously established at Bloomington. Subsequent acts, in 1825 and 1827, were passed providing for the sale of the seminary townships in Gibson and Monroe Counties, on the assumption that the lands granted to Vincennes University, in 1806, were still the property of the State. Out of these acts, under which 17,000 acres of the Gibson County lands were sold and the proceeds returned to the State treasury for the benefit of the seminary and college funds, came the subsequent litigation between the trustees of Vincennes University and the State of Indiana. This litigation it will be proper to describe briefly in this connection.

The withdrawal of State care and attention from this early school is not fully explained. The removal of the capital of the Territory, and consequently of public influence, from Vincennes to Corydon, in 1813; the carelessness and the suspension of organization in its own board of

trustees and the indifference of its friends; the rise of similar "academies" and "seminaries" in other portions of the State; the desire to have the State's "seminary" near the centre of population, which was then moving rapidly toward the north, and, perhaps, political influence—all these worked adversely to the continuance of the school at Vincennes as a State institution. But after the school had continued for some years as the Knox County Seminary, the old corporation was resuscitated by an act of the legislature in 1838, making provision for supplying vacancies in the board of trustees. A clause, however, was inserted in this act intended to prevent the renewal of any claim to the seminary township taken from it in 1822. But in 1845 the trustees of Vincennes University, thus revived, laid claim to the Gibson County lands, and to the proceeds of previous sales made by the State, which had been transferred to the Indiana University, formerly the State seminary, and suit was brought to test the question of title. On January 17, 1846, in order to make legal a suit against a State, and to relieve the occupants of the lands of responsibility and litigation, an act was passed by the State legislature authorizing "the trustees of Vincennes University to bring suit against the State of Indiana, and for other purposes." This suit, in the Marion County circuit court, resulted in a decree in favor of the trustees in the amount of $30,099.66 as the proceeds of previous sales. On an appeal to the supreme court of the State, this decision was reversed, the court holding that the act of the Territorial legislature of 1806 granting the lands to the Vincennes University was nugatory, because no such power was vested in it by act of Congress, and that they were not, at the time of this sale and disposal, in existence as a corporation, having allowed their corporation to lapse. In this suit Mr. Samuel Judah appeared far the trustees and Mr. O. H. Smith and Mr. Geo. G. Dunn for the State.

The trustees of the Vincennes University were not satisfied with this decision, and they sued out a writ of error from the Supreme Court of the United States, which, at the December term, 1852, reversed the decision of the supreme court of the State, holding that when the Territorial legislature of 1806 incorporated a "board of trustees of the Vincennes University," the grant of a township in the Vincennes district by the Congress of 1804, and which was located by the Secretary of the Treasury in 1806, attached to this board, although for the two preceding years there had been no grantee in existence; and holding further that, if the board of trustees, by a failure to elect when vacancies occurred, or through any other means, became reduced to a less number than was authorized to act by the charter, the corporation was not thereby dissolved, but its franchises were suspended until restored by legislative action. By this decision the State recovered to the Vincennes University the sum of $66,585, one-fourth of which was retained as attorney's fees. It will be interesting to note on this topic that the trustees subsequently brought suit against Mr. Judah to compel him to

hand over to the university the $16,625 retained by him as attorney He answered that they had, by resolution duly entered upon their records, contracted to pay him one-fourth of what they should recover in the suit. The trustees replied that at the date referred to Mr. Judah was secretary of their board and had falsely entered the resolution upon their record, which Mr. Judah denied. Though two favorable decisions were gained by the trustees in the lower courts, Mr. Judah carried the case to the Supreme Court of the United States, and in 1864 gained a reversal, and the suit ended in his retention of the fees.

We have carried this recital forward in point of time in order to place in connection the related events in the history of this pioneer institution. It is an interesting part of the educational history of the State. After the reorganization of its trustees by the enabling act of 1838, and after they had recovered by litigation more than $40,000 of its land endowment, the Vincennes University, in 1853, again opened for academic instruction. Its endowment has since been increased to over $60,000, and its corps of instructors have brought the institution into the condition of a vigorous academic school. In 1856 a department for women was added to the school. This continued in successful operation as a separate department until 1870. In that year it was deemed advisable to unite the two schools, and since then pupils of both sexes have had the same teachers and recited in the same classes.

Owing to the curtailment of its revenues by the action of the legislature the school has never become the complete institution designed by the founders, but has corresponded to the most advanced high schools and academies. It makes no pretensions to more than this at the present time. However, opportunities have been offered to those who desire to take a more advanced course to do so. Its regular graduates are enabled without examination to enter the Junior class of the State University, and are prepared for that grade in similar institutions. President E. A. Bryan is a graduate of Indiana University, class of 1878, and his administration has won for the institution a confident and growing favor.

The early history of Vincennes University is an essential part of the history of higher education by the State. In its early life it may be said to represent the first effort of the people toward a State university. During the most of its career its record is inseparably connected with the early conduct and attitude of the State toward higher education. Naturally its history leads our consideration to the Indiana University, to the account of which we presently turn. But before doing so, however, we wish to direct attention to the common school system of Indiana.

CHAPTER III.

THE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF INDIANA.

I.—THE OLD CONSTITUTION AND THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

"They are the most ignorant people in the world. There is not a fiftieth man that can either read or write."

These words were spoken of the inhabitants of the Wabash Valley and the adjacent country by Governor St. Clair in 1790. What hath a century wrought? Then there lived here a people isolated from civilization, almost untouched by the influences of refinement and culture. They were living in a wilderness among savage beasts and savage men. The English-speaking population, outside of the military posts, consisted almost entirely of refugee adventurers who had come across the mountains, or followed the river courses, to reach the neighborhood of the old French settlements, or for the purpose of forming new settlements of their own. Frenchmen, Englishmen, and Americans, as Governor St. Clair himself records, had all given to Clark's late Indian expedition of 1786 all that they could spare, and "often much more than they could spare with any convenience to themselves." Most of these people had always been ignorant; the Indian wars had left all of them poor. P. Gibault, priest, and eighty-seven others are our witnesses to the "statement that the settlers comprised a few unhappy beings who are scarcely able to support their pitiful existence, not knowing where to find a morsel of bread to nourish their families."[1]

At the time of which St. Clair and Gibault spoke, the French settler and his mode of life had not yet given place entirely to the institutions and spirit of English civilization. Within less than two decades thereafter the Frenchman had disappeared as an element of influence in the institutional life of Indiana Territory, and the fact that his civilization and law had ever contested the soil was attested chiefly by the names he had left upon the map.

When Indiana became a separate Territory in 1800 the inhabitants were still poor, ignorant, unaspiring, unchanging; simple and religious, it may be, but especially marked by a conspicuous absence of the spirit of enterprise. All reminiscences of that day, and some years later, go to prove that they had but little thought to give to education. Mr. Washburn, in his sketch of Gov. Edward Coles, of Illinois, bears testimony to this fact in his description of the "poor white" element

[1] Dillon's History of Indiana.

which came from the Carolinas, and other parts of the South, into the southern settlements of Illinois and Indiana. Judge Burnett, of Ohio, in his "Notes" on the early life of the Territory, describes the inhabitants as strikingly ignorant and superstitious, treading in the footsteps of their fathers, imitative, destructive in their agricultural methods, exhausting their fields and then abandoning them, not seeming to know of any improvements in agriculture since the days when Noah planted his vineyard.

These few indications may serve to give us some idea of the land and the people in Indiana in the two decades which met at the threshold of the nineteenth century. No doubt the picture, in large measure, is one of ignorance and poverty. Nevertheless the American had scarcely set his foot in the Territory before the project of free schools followed his coming. That he came in poverty renders his efforts for the realization of his desire all the more to his honor.

We have seen what beginnings were made in higher education in the unsettled Territory in the first decade of this century. We wish now to trace the growth and influence of common schools for the people.

Nearly a half century elapsed from the time the Vincennes University was established by the early pioneers of Indiana before the plan of the present common-school system of the State was completed in the Constitution of 1851. Why was there such delay in providing a common system for universal popular education? Was it that the men who founded Indiana were indifferent to the benefits of free education for all the people? Or, were they unwilling to undertake the burdens and responsibilities necessary for its provision? Or, did they fail to appreciate the necessity of popular education under a popular government?

The evidence which we discover as we follow the history of Indiana pioneers all goes to prove that they had an earnest appreciation of these important elements in the upbuilding of a State. They were not forgetful of the truth which Jefferson had taught—that "if a people expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never can be;" and they were far from endorsing, either in their opinions or by their public conduct, the old dogma and heresy of privileged rulers—that the ignorance of the masses is necessary to their obedience to law. Rather, they were possessed with a spirit of willingness to undergo a continuous struggle for the sake of their schools and colleges. It was not an easy task which they had before them, nor one which they could be expected to accomplish in a year or a decade; and it is not surprising to those who have studied the conditions of their early life that more than a generation elapsed with the people of Indiana before they had worked out a comprehensive system of schools to be applied in common to all the communities of the State. Those who understand the impediments and difficulties which they endured will not speak in disparagement of them in this respect. In their first State Constitution, as we shall see, the people made it incumbent upon

subsequent legislatures to establish a system of common schools—a responsibility from which subsequent generations could never escape—and the early efforts in this direction, without precedents or models, or means, or the conveniences of settled communities, is proof sufficient of the earnest desire of the people for educational advancement.

It must be remembered that when the early home-hunters came into Indiana they came, in the great majority of cases, in comparative poverty. The uplands of Indiana were in densest forest, the lowlands were often flooded, and the prairies were for the most part in undrained swamps. Judge D. D. Banta, in his account of the early years of the university, says of the early comers: "These were all poor men, poor even for their own day. Most were able to buy 40, 80, or 100 acres of land at 'Congress price,' but there were comparatively few who could do more. What had they undertaken? To subdue the wilderness; to wrest from reluctant nature a livelihood for themselves and their families; to construct highways; to build towns; to establish churches and schools—in a word, to make a State. What had they to encounter? The story of their hardships never has been and never can be fully told. There was the forest, dense, damp, and gloomy, unexcelled in its magnitude in this forest continent of ours; swamps interminable where now are fruitful fields; wild beasts waiting to devour the products of labor; the late and early frosts; the annual floods; the want of markets; a financial revulsion more disastrous in its consequences than has ever cursed the people of Indiana since; and the almost universal prevalence of the autumnal and other sickness peculiar to a new country. From 1820 to 1825 the mortality in the State was appalling. In the fall of 1820 the sickness in the Blue River settlements was so great that there were not enough well people to nurse the sick ones. In 1822 an epidemic of fever broke out in the new town of Indianapolis, and carried off 72 persons, an eighth of the population. In 1820 over 100 out of a population of 600 died in Vevay. Palestine, then the seat of justice in Lawrence County, was nearly depopulated." "In most neighborhoods," says another historian, "there were but few persons who escaped without one or more severe attacks of fever. Death numbered his victims by hundreds. The land was filled with mourning, and the graveyards were filled with the pioneer dead."

It was in such times as these that the subsoiling and preparation were going forward for the system of education which, it has often been thought, was conceived and invented in the second constitutional convention of 1851. But it is to be observed that it is not by quick invention that lasting and worthy institutions arise. Rather the slowly acquired habits of life, the experiences gained through difficulties and failures, are the means by which firm foundations are established. The English-speaking people receive their organized life, in civil society, law, politics and education, not from persuasion, philosophy or logic but from the realities of actual experience. Because of this is it so

frequently said that our institutions are a growth. To make great institutions out of hand, either educational or political, has seldom, if ever, fallen to the lot of any people. Noticing this truth in the growth of institutions we may truly say that the common-school system of Indiana, as it is to-day, is in no inconsiderable measure the result of these 50 years of apparent neglect, defeat, and failure. The people were learning in the severe school of adversity.

It is well further to emphasize the fact that the Indiana school system is not the product of some creative genius in the constitutional convention of 1851, a body which has been, perhaps, too much eulogized by such assertions in Indiana educational literature. The idea was of earlier origin. As ex-Superintendent John W. Holcombe has said, "the conception and invention of our system took place in the minds of our territorial statesmen." True, the date of 1851 marks an epoch in Indiana educational development. Within a few years, under the operation of a new Constitution and a new law, a great change occurred in the aspect of public education, and it seemed that all these things which were good had come from the measures which were new. "But what is the teaching of history?" asks a social reformer, "but that great transformations, while ages in unnoticed preparation, when once inaugurated, are accomplished with a rapidity and resistless momentum proportioned to their magnitude, not limited by it."

The labor of a generation, and the changed conditions resulting therefrom, had made possible the realization of what had been the constant desire, we may even say the settled purpose, of men who had come before. The principle of uniform education in free schools supported by the State came down through the Constitution of 1816 from the men who first made Indiana a State. The men of the convention of 1851 may be said to have recognized, certainly they did not conceive, the idea as a policy for the State. To their honor it may be said that, by the line of positive progress which they pursued, they gave the idea a favorable opportunity to develop. We should look with gratitude to the workers of the later convention, but we must not fail to recognize the work of their fathers, who laid the foundation upon which they stood. That the people strove for a generation without accomplishing the object in view does not prove the effort to have been useless or vain, or that the object was not clearly apprehended.

The first Constitution under which the people seemed to be struggling toward a goal which itself had set before them, continually reminded the general assembly of what had yet to be done. This Constitution was adopted in convention at Corydon in 1816. It contained these provisions on the subject of education:

1. "Knowledge and learning generally diffused throughout a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government, and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country being highly conducive to this end, it shall

be the duty of the general assembly to provide by law for the improvement of such lands as are, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State for the use of schools, and to apply any funds which may be raised from such lands, or from any other quarter, to the accomplishment of the grand object for which they are or may be intended. But no lands granted for the use of schools or seminaries of learning shall be sold by authority of this State prior to the year 1820; and the moneys which may be raised out of the sale of any such lands, or otherwise obtained for the purposes aforesaid, shall be and remain a fund for the exclusive purpose of promoting the interest of literature and the sciences, and for the support of seminaries and public schools. The general assembly shall, from time to time, pass such laws as shall be calculated to encourage intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvements, by allowing rewards and immunities for the promotion and improvement of arts, sciences, commerce, manufactures, and natural history; and to countenance and encourage the principles of humanity, honesty, industry, and morality.

2. "It shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all.

3. "And for the promotion of such salutary end the money which shall be paid as an equivalent by persons exempt from militia duty, except in times of war, shall be exclusively and in equal proportions applied to the support of county seminaries; also all fines assessed for any breach of the penal laws shall be applied to said seminaries in the counties wherein they shall be assessed."

"No efficient school law," says Mr. H. M. Skinner, "was ever passed under that Constitution." However, immediate steps were taken for the care and improvement of the school lands. Perhaps under the conditions of that time, which we have in a measure described, this was the best which could be done. If they could not then support schools, they would see to the care of the revenue for the future. An act of December 24, 1816, provided for the appointment of a superintendent of the school section in each congressional township. It was the duty of this officer to attend to the leasing of the school lands. The unimproved lands he could let out for seven years, allowing one lessee to a quarter section. The improved lands might be let for three years, the lessee being required to set out apple and peach trees to the number of 100 each on his allotment. The superintendent was appointed for a term of two years, to be paid at the discretion of the county commissioners.

The first school law of the State was enacted at this time, December 24, 1816. It provided that by the petition of twenty householders in any Congressional township, there should be an election of three township trustees for school purposes. The law gave to these trustees all

necessary powers to promote education and to encourage schools; but for their work they were left without visible means. Their chief purpose seemed to be to wait for revenue.

On the 9th of January, 1821, the general assembly appointed a committee of seven to prepare for the assembly at its next session a bill providing for a general State system of education. They were instructed to "guard especially against any distinction between the rich and the poor." The vacation during which the committee was to do this work passed away without the preparation of a bill. A joint resolution at the next session, reminded the committee of its duty. But it was not until January 31, 1824, that the expected school law was secured. It was entitled "An act to incorporate Congressional townships, and providing for public schools therein." By its provisions there were to be three trustees for each township who were to have power to locate school districts, to appoint subtrustees for these districts, to manage the school lands, and to have the general management of the schools. The school buildings were to be erected by the people of the several districts, and the law levied the tax for that purpose in the shape of manual labor. Every able-bodied male person, except minors, was to work one day each week until the district schoolhouse be completed. Every voter was turned into a builder, some were carpenters, some masons, some hewers. In case the builder refused to work, or to pay an equivalent in glass, boards, nails, or other material, he was to be fined 37½ cents a day for each day's failure. Specifications were made as to the schoolhouses; the ceiling was to be eight feet high, the floor one foot from the ground. The trustees were also made township examiners, and the teacher was required to prove his competency before this non-professional body by examination in the three branches of the entire school curriculum, reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The schools established by this law were neither general nor free. They were not general, because the law did not make their establishment mandatory. They were not free, because no State revenue was provided for their maintenance; they were sustained by "rate bills," a kind of graduated tuition fee. The consequence of these important defects was that, while in an enterprising neighborhood schools were sustained for a few months in the year, in many parts of the State schools were entirely unknown.

Another general school law was passed February 2, 1833, but it seems to have had no considerable influence on the educational development of the State. To the three trustees in each Congressional township, it added a school commissioner for the county. The school corporation was evidently growing. It had passed from the district to the township; it had now reached the county.

The law gave to the inhabitants of each Congressional township the option of determining whether, when their school lands had been sold,

they would lend the money in their corporate capacity to the citizens of their township and county, or give it in trust to the loan office of the State. In the first instance, there was no security beyond the mortgage or note of the individual borrower; in the second, the faith of the State was pledged for the perpetual payment of the interest. Many individual interests would lead the township to the former course. The State was still leaving too much local self-government to the people.

The next general school law of the State was enacted February 6, 1837. By this law the county school commissioner was retained and to him was assigned the duty of managing the school revenues. Three county school examiners were provided for, whose duty it should be to pass upon the qualifications of teachers, and who were to be appointed by the judge of the circuit court. There were to be as formerly three trustees to each Congressional township. The county commissioner and the trustees were to hold their offices for three years, the examiners for one. In each district there were to be three district trustees. All matters pertaining to schools, the building of houses, length of term, etc., were to be left to popular vote, the election for all such purposes being conducted under the supervision of the district trustees. In this law no provision was made for town and city schools. These, it was supposed, would be provided in the various county seats by the county seminaries, which we presently describe.

We have here given a brief sketch of the general school legislation under the Constitution of 1816,[1] to the time when the agitation began which resulted through the convention of 1851, and the law of 1852, in a new period in the educational development of the State. With the test of the law of 1837, the first epoch may be said to have closed. It was an epoch of experiment. This law and all its predecessors upon which it was based were inadequate. As a means of providing for popular education in free common schools they must be regarded as failures. They may have accomplished some other good; certainly they did not accomplish the principal object which the legislators and the people seemed to have had in view.

It must not be supposed that during this time there was no other school legislation. There was much; but all of it, as we shall have occasion to see, related to the State and county seminaries, to the care and sale of school lands and the accumulation of the school fund. These were by no means unimportant matters, and in the light of the Indiana school fund of to-day, which is held in such inviolable trust by the State, it does not become any one of this generation to depreciate the sense and foresight of the legislators of a half century ago. In forming our opinions of these men, we must think in part from their point of view. Evidently they thought that as a natural stream may not rise higher than its source, so, indeed, could none of the common district schools be developed faster than the districts themselves. The school, if

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[1] Holcombe's Report, 1884.

a district saw fit to establish one, could be in no further stage of development than the people whose school it was. As yet there was no thought that the State might control and use the schools for the better growth of the local district. The kinds of schools the various townships should have was not thought a proper subject of legislation by the State. To give the various counties and districts an opportunity, or to take care of the school lands was, it was thought, the most of what the State needed to do. And after all it is only upon this material basis of secured wealth that the superstructure of our present school system can rest. It has been well observed that the wonder is, that in the promotion of general education the early legislators succeeded so well. Their difficulties of which we have often heard, we have probably never been able to appreciate. Certain it is, they did not lose sight for a moment of the consummation toward which they labored—free public schools by the State for universal education.

But why this failure of which we have spoken?

Such instances of trial and failure have given rise to what is now almost an historical adage, that a people, struggling with the problems of government and institutions, are first to be taught by their failures, afterward by their successes. The experience furnished the usual process of social development, through which it seems the people had necessarily to go, a process which leads us to observe that while any possible, but inadequate, measure is still open and untried, the commonwealth refuses the final and radical remedy. The common schools of this period, as we may well expect, were few and poor indeed. Reminiscences of them suggest the old story of the rugged pioneer teacher, the log schoolhouse, the bare rude walls, the rough pins above the teacher's desk to hold his "gads," the huge fireplace, the rickety backless benches, the writing exercise, the spelling-book, and "ciphering to the double rule of three"—these recall for us the early school. The buildings were in most instances in inconvenient places and without furniture—such a matter as the modern apparatus not having been thought of.

There were some professional teachers in those days, but usually the schools were managed and the lessons heard by men—seldom by women—with whom school-teaching was but an incidental occupation.

The secular schools in the Territory before the admission of the State probably did not number a score, and fewer of them were free. M. Rivet, a French missionary, had opened a school at Vincennes as early as 1793. One was opened near Charlestown, Clark County, in 1803. John Dumont and wife, coming from New York, taught in Vevay as early as 1812.

School was taught in the old fort which stood where Fort Wayne is now, in 1821, and in various other parts of the State there were occasional schools usually conducted as private enterprises.

Barnabas C. Hobbs, a veteran teacher of the State, and ex-superintendent of public instruction, in his reminiscences of "Early School

Days," says: "The pioneer teachers were generally adventurers from the east or from England, Scotland, or Ireland, who sought temporary employment during winter while waiting for an opening for business. Another class were men unsuccessful in trade, or who were lame or otherwise disabled. I once went to school to a retired liquor seller, who was very corpulent and sedentary in his habits. He was extraordinarily faithful in beginning early and 'keeping' late. School commenced at 7 in summer and 7:30 in winter. Recesses, morning and afternoon, were five minutes long, and we had one hour at noon. We were fully ten hours in school in summer. How scarcely endurable was that confinement! We had to sit on backless benches all those long days, and we wished—anxiously wished—recess or noon or night would come. Hours seemed like ages. May no generation ever be so punished again. But there was some silver lining to that cloud in my early school days. It is unreasonable to suppose that 250 pounds avoirdupois could sit in one corner of any house all day without getting sleepy. Peace to his memory. When the naps came there was relief to the school. We ever enjoyed these genial occasions, and dreaded to see the gentleman wake up. I never complained of his needed siestas."

This was probably a type of a good many schools of the time. But that day in some respects was not unlike this; there were then as now schools and schools, teachers and teachers.

Mr. Hobbs bears testimony of another kind: "An accomplished woman from a bright center in North Carolina, taught a summer school in southern Indiana in the early days. She had read much and could talk well; she had a happy way of illustrating prose and poetry by anecdotes of history and biography, and she could tell much about mythology. The lessons of poetry in Murray's Introduction and English Reader, became intensely interesting after her stories about Greece and Rome, Ajax, Pegasus, and Parnassus. She stirred within me a love for classic literature, history and art which has never abated and which has led me to buy many books that would not otherwise have been bought. She lived a few years imperfectly appreciated, and went to the upper kingdom."

To such early and worthy teachers were due in no small measure the influences which subsequently moulded public opinion for a better time.

The trustees whose duty it was to examine the teachers were, as a rule, incapable; the teacher himself was usually without education. If one could write and show the boys how to cipher through the "rule of three" he was considered unusually proficient. There were no teachers' institutes, normal schools, or best methods. To spell well and to write a good hand were considered the chief ends of learning. The trustees were required by law to employ their teacher upon the most advantageous terms. Consequently the article of agreement specified what produce should be paid him, where it should be delivered, what part should be in money, and whether or not the teacher should "board round."

These early schools often lasted from sunrise to sunset. The first comers generally received first attention from the teacher, the subsequent arrivals awaiting attention in turn. Sometimes the first comer was awarded the place of honor at the head of the class, and in consequence the smart boy would be apt to be found awaiting his teacher at the school door at 5 o'clock in the morning. The schools were generally "noisy," every pupil conning his lesson as loud as he pleased. The discussion as to the relative merits of "loud" and "silent" schools occupied the attention of educators for a considerable period of years.

The capable young teacher of those days, though he had no great drain on his intellectual capacity in the schoolroom, had not an easy time in other ways. He was a pioneer worker like his neighbors. One of them who was afterwards a teacher in the State University has left some recollections of his first country school in Monroe County, within four miles of the location of the university. It was in the early thirties. The "big road"—the State road to Columbus—was the only highway through the country. The woods were full of deer and turkeys; coons and foxes and wolves and panthers prowled around occasionally, and now and then a bear was known to pass through the neighborhood. The boys of that day, the young teacher among them, had to work harder than seems necessary now. They had the trees to cut down, cut up, roll, and burn, sprouts to grub up, rails to make and haul, fences to build, corn to plow and hoe in the rootiest ground one ever saw. At harvest they had the wheat to cut with a sickle, to tramp it out with horses or beat it out with a flail.

It was not an easy task under such circumstances, while most of the people were striving for homes and existence, to establish a uniform system of schools among the common people.

But we would not be understood as implying that education at this time in Indiana, depended alone upon the struggling free schools. In such a case the outlook would have been hopeless. But that common law of development, so noticeable in the history of education, was working here as it had invariably worked before. The foundation, if we may employ the paradox, was laid at the apex of our educational system. It was the colleges and seminaries which were destined to work out the problem of the lower schools. The colleges had begun to do their work, and local seminaries were multiplying and growing. Their influences were taking permanent hold on the State.

We can not in this sketch fail to recognize the rise and influence of the old county seminaries. Only a brief outline of their history can be given. By the act of January 26, 1818, the Governor was empowered to appoint a seminary trustee for each county whose duty it should be to attend to the accumulation of a seminary fund from fines and forfeitures, and to loan this fund to the best advantage. Two years later the legislature chartered the State seminary at Bloomington.

As early as 1821, Rev. William Haughton, an Irish Quaker, opened a

school in Fayette County. He became famous as a teacher throughout the southeastern part of the State, and largely through his efforts the first county seminary in the State was established in Union County, February 7, 1825. This was the beginning of the county seminaries, a series of institutions established in various counties of the State to serve the need of advanced pupils and to prepare students for college. Their history extends through a period of 25 years.

The establishment of the Union County Seminary at Liberty in 1825 was by special charter, but in 1831 a general law provided for the establishment of a seminary in each county. Besides these institutions under the control of the respective counties, other institutions of a similar kind generally called "academies" were established in various parts of the State, whose charters were secured from the legislature by towns and cities and religious denominations. The earliest of these was founded December 27, 1816, in Corydon, then the capital of the State. One followed soon after, January 9, 1823, at Aurora, secured chiefly through the enterprise of James Walker, Jesse L. Holman, and other public-spirited citizens of Dearborn County. The Territorial University became Knox County Seminary in 1825.

These schools, like the elementary schools, were not supported without a charge for tuition in the shape of "rate bills." As the buildings, fuel, and furnishings were supplied by county funds, the charges were not very heavy. The success which any seminary achieved depended almost entirely upon the principal who was placed at its head and who became its faculty and directing energy. Many worthy educators to whom later generations in Indiana are indebted in an inestimable degree, gave the first and best energies of their professional lives to the establishment and maintenance of these schools. John I. Morrison, Samuel K. Hoshour, George W. Hoss, Hiram A. Hunter, E. P. Cole, Barnabas C. Hobbs, James G. May, George A. Chase, Cyrus Nutt, John Dumont, and other faithful teachers who were in subsequent years the prominent educators of Indiana were early principals in these efficient schools. From among their students have come many men known to fame. Nathan Kimball, Newton Booth, late U. S. Senator from California, and Washington C. DePauw, were students of the Salem Seminary under Morrison. Oliver P. Morton and Lew Wallace studied under Hoshour in the Wayne County Seminary at Centreville. Miles J. Fletcher, Thomas A. Hendricks, John Coburn, and many other prominent men of Indiana, received their preparatory training in these institutions.

These old seminaries gradually disappeared after the passage of the first school law under the new Constitution. The free public high schools have succeeded to their places. In their day they served an excellent, we may even say indispensable, purpose. They raised the educational standard of the State; they educated teachers, they brought the advantages of education within reach of a majority of the people, and in

demonstrating the great benefits therefrom they made possible the movement for universal schools. They were the main reliance for the education of the people for a quarter of a century. They are to be assigned a respectable place in the story of Indiana schools, and their influence is yet felt in the educational forces of the State, not only in the work of a few of their number which still survive, but in the impressions left by the many which have long since suspended their operations.

"The very names of the old seminaries," says Mr. Skinner, "call back in the minds of elderly citizens trooping memories of the days of youth. Pictures of faces long changed by time or resolved to dust in the churchyard, with glad young voices that call no more except in memory's halls, are evoked with every thought of these old schools."

Several of these academies and seminaries, instead of closing their doors as most of them did, developed into larger institutions. The State Seminary at Bloomington became the State University. The Teachers' Seminary at Crawfordsville became Wabash College. Hanover Academy has grown into Hanover College, and the Manual Labor Institute at Franklin was the forerunner of Franklin College. Mr. H. M. Skinner has collected as complete a list as possible of these schools with the dates of their incorporation which we transfer to our pages.[1]

[1] INCORPORATION OF COUNTY SEMINARIES.

County.	Date of incorporation.	County.	Date of incorporation.
Union	Feb. 7, 1825	Perry	Jan. 30, 1834
Knox	Feb. 12, 1825	Switzerland	Feb. 1, 1834
Gibson	Jan. 21, 1826	Dearborn	Jan. 2, 1835
Orange	Jan. 26, 1826	Crawford	Feb. 7, 1835
Jefferson	Jan. 11, 1830	Rush	Feb. 1, 1836
Franklin	Jan. 22, 1830	Parke	Feb. 5, 1836
Lawrence	Jan. 8, 1831	Carroll	Jan. 27, 1837
Shelby	Jan. 29, 1831	Clay	Feb. 2, 1837
Decatur	Jan. 26, 1832	Kosciusko (Leesburgh-	
Greene	....do	School Society)	Feb. 24, 1840
Monroe (Female Seminary)	Jan. 29, 1833	Daviess	Feb. 10, 1841
		Laporte	Feb. 9, 1843
Posey	Feb. 1, 1834	Brown	Feb. 11, 1843

INCORPORATION OF SEMINARIES IN GENERAL.

Name.	Date of incorporation.
Corydon Seminary	Dec. 27, 1816
Aurora Seminary	Jan. 9, 1823
Cambridge Academy (Dearborn County)	Jan. 13, 1826
Hanover Academy	Jan. 6, 1829
Eugene Academy	Dec. 31, 1829
Rising Sun Seminary	Dec. 30, 1829

We have now to approach the period of the new Constitution. The agitation leading to the changes which occurred in educational sentiment and legislation in Indiana, between the years 1846 and 1852, contains an interesting and instructive story. Out of that agitation came the main features of the present school system of the State. By it the people were moved to supply the deficiency which had stood so long and on account of which the State had made so little progress in popular intelligence. The axe had to be laid to the root of the evil.

Firm belief in the principle of local self-government was dominant in the minds of the early settlers in Indiana. In their adherence to this principle they consented to let the pendulum swing too far from centralization. They seemed not yet willing to concede that the district school should be a State institution, and the teacher a State officer. They would leave each community to regulate its own affairs in school matters, in its own way, without aid, almost without advice, always without interference or supervision. Yet all communities were not

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INCORPORATION OF SEMINARIES IN GENERAL—Continued.

Name.	Date of incorporation.
Greencastle Seminary	Jan. 4, 1830
Crawfordsville Seminary	do
Christian College	Jan. 24, 1833
Western Union Seminary	Feb. 2, 1833
Indiana Teachers' Seminary	Feb. 1, 1834
Carlisle School	Jan. 16, 1835
Olive Branch School (Tippecanoe County)	Feb. 6, 1835
Richmond Educational Society	Feb. 7, 1835
Vincennes Academy	Jan. 23, 1836
Indiana Baptist Manual Labor Institute	Jan. 30, 1836
Peru Collegiate Institute	Jan. 7, 1837
Laurel Academy	Feb. 4, 1837
St. Joseph Manual Labor Collegiate Institute	Jan. 30, 1837
Washington Seminary	Jan. 22, 1840
Indiana General Baptist Seminary	Jan. 31, 1840
Rockville Female Seminary	do
Orleans Institute	Feb. 7, 1840
Lagrange Collegiate Institute	Feb. 13, 1840
Crawfordsville Female Institute	Feb. 24, 1840
St. Gabriel's College	Jan. 9, 1841
St. Mary's Seminary (Indianapolis)	Jan. 15, 1844
Seminary of St. Mary's of the Woods (Terre Haute)	Jan. 14, 1846
Perrysville Seminary	Jan. 27, 1847
Anderson's Collegiate Institute (New Albany)	—— —, 1847
Franklin Institute (Richmond)	Jan. 29, 1848
Fairview Academy (Rush County)	Feb. 16, 1848
Goodwin Female Institute (Lafayette)	Jan. 17, 1850
Hartsville Academy	Jan. 12, 1850
Indianapolis Collegiate Institute	Jan. 19, 1850
Cloverdale Seminary	do
Indiana Female Normal School	Jan. 21, 1850

alike in enterprise, nor were they equal in the means at command to provide education for their children. The people were but in the process of learning that within the State, as within the Church, the strong ought to help bear the infirmities of the weak. The principle of uniform free schools where the children of the rich and the poor might be taught alike at public expense was but making its way; it had yet to be fully comprehended. The seminaries and academies, where tuition was charged, gave unto those that had, but for those that had not, nothing was provided.

But it was a condition, not a theory, which moved the general assembly to action. Abstract argument seldom, if ever, causes a popular movement. In order to arouse a people to action they must feel the moving power of positive evils. No sentimental wish for universal education could have secured sufficient school legislation in Indiana. It could not have been brought about by the brilliant orations of some educational agitator, nor by a series of eloquent editorials from some wise and philosophic editor, nor by a prophecy from some seer of evils to come. Stern reality, the present facts of life, the actual social conditions which the people see and feel, these are the motive forces in changes and reform. These are the only effective weapons of the reformer, and it was these that the educational reformers in Indiana began to use.

In 1834 a competent witness asserted that the "state of common education in Indiana is truly alarming. Only about one child in eight, between 5 and 15 years, is able to read. The common schools and competent teachers are few."

"In 1840," says Dr. Tuttle, of Wabash College, "there were 273,784 children in the State of school age, of whom 48,180 attended the common schools. One-seventh of the adult population could not read and a large proportion of those who could read did so imperfectly. In spite of the constitutional provision of the State and the famous '16th section,' the common schools of Indiana were in a bad condition. As late as 1846 the State rated lowest among the free States as to its popular intelligence and means of popular education. Even the capital of the State did not have a free school until 1853, and then one was kept open only two months."

The school facilities and opportunities were proving utterly inadequate for the rapidly increasing population. Year by year affairs were becoming more serious and disgraceful, as is evidenced by the fact that while Indiana stood 16th among the 23 States of the Union as regards popular intelligence in 1840, by 1850 she had sunk to the rank of 23d among a total of 26. While her population had increased 50 per cent., her illiteracy had increased 100 per cent. Only three slave States were below her. What was to be done?

While a condition, as we have said, is the only effective weapon

needed by him who is seeking change and reform in the social life and laws of the people, we properly honor the man above his fellows who first seizes the condition by mental grasp and knows best how to use it. Honor to whom honor is due. No man stood alone at that time in seeking to arouse a public sentiment in favor of a better condition in the public education. At Indianapolis, Crawfordsville, Salem, Greencastle, Centreville, Hanover, Bloomington, La Porte, and other places there were men who had an appreciation of educational needs, and who, like public-spirited citizens, were using their energies in the cause of enlightenment and progress. They were making their power felt through voice and pen for advance on educational lines. One among them all has left a preëminent mark, and seems to have stood as a natural leader among the educational forces then arraying themselves for a forward movement, a leader "who deserves a statue in Indiana's capital," says President Tuttle, "as much as Horace Mann in front of the Boston State house." Prof. Caleb Mills, of Wabash College, the leader of whom we speak, subsequently the second superintendent of public instruction in Indiana, not only possessed by nature many of the elements of a popular educator, but he was as well a constant and constructive thinker. He believed thoroughly in the honesty and integrity of the people, and he never doubted their capacity for self-government. He believed that no honest appeal to the people in a good cause would be in vain, and the sequel of his effort proved the justification of his confidence.

Democratic in his instincts, he was a man of the most vigorous public spirit and of the truest aspirations. Believing thoroughly in popular government, he never doubted the issue of the experiment which the commonwealths of the Union had undertaken, if the masses could be won for education. He thus saw clearly that the fundamental concern in a commonwealth where a universal ballot prevails, was common intelligence. Education in Mills's mind was of paramount importance in the State.

Professor Mills was therefore thoroughly interested in the cause of common schools. This cause and the preaching of the Gospel he ranked together as "claiming the attention of a patriotic and christian community." A classical graduate of Dartmouth College, he was "nominated to fill the English department" in Wabash College at Crawfordsville, July 18, 1833. From that time until his death, October 17, 1879, he never ceased to take a vital interest in the cause of education in Indiana, and during the larger part of a long life he was one of the ablest, most constant, and active laborers in the promotion of public education by common schools. As early as 1833, while yet a student, he had planned his "common-school campaign" in Indiana. In a letter of that year he says:

"My thoughts have been directed of late to the subject of common schools, and the best means of awakening a more lively interest in

their establishment in the western country. Public sentiment must be changed in regard to free schools; prejudice must be overcome, and the public mind awakened to the importance of carrying the means of education to every door. Though it is the work of years, yet it must and can be done. The sooner we embark in this enterprise, the better. It can be effected only by convincing the common people that the scheme we propose is practicable, is the best and most economical way of giving their children an education."

In 1846, the Hon. James Whitcomb was elected Governor of Indiana. He had formerly been a teacher in the State and was one of the most scholarly of Indiana's public men. The friends of education had high hopes that his annual message to the general assembly would contain some important recommendations on the subject of the common schools. For ten years the cause of education had been entirely neglected in the messages of the successive Governors, and some expectant ones were hoping that with a patron of education in the Governor's chair, the subject would receive the attention which its importance deserved. The hope for a while was disappointed. The first Monday in December came once and was gone, and with it came and went, also, the assembly and the Governor's message. But as in previous years, the schools of the State were left unnoticed, as a matter not worthy the attention of the law-making body. Who was there to call the legislators to their duty? Who could arouse the indifferent mass to a sufficient understanding of an alarming condition? Where was the statesman? It was the silent scholar who, twenty years a thinker and a teacher, was now ready to shape the course of events by shaking the educational thought of the State.

In the Indiana State Journal of December 7, 1846, appeared a communication in the nature of a "Message to the General Assembly of Indiana." The "message" was signed by "One of the People." It was the first of a series of papers addressed to the people of the State and to their representatives which, continued at intervals for the next six years, had a decisive influence on the subsequent course of public education in Indiana.

"One of the People," the author of the "message" was Prof. Caleb Mills, of Wabash College. For years his identity was concealed; he relied for power upon the merit of his cause and the intrinsic force of what he had to say. In the six papers that he prepared, Professor Mills "presented a remarkable array of facts, suggested plans, answered objections, and presented aguments, all bearing on the one point, the free common school for all the children of Indiana." [1]

In his first message he courteously reminded the Governor of his previous neglect. "Whilst our Governor," he said, "will in his annual message shed the light of executive wisdom upon the path of your legislative duties as to many of the more prominent and important interests

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[1] President Tuttle's Memorial Paper on Mills.

of the State, one important interest has been neglected. Feeling that there is one topic which has not received from him or any of his illustrious predecessors for the last ten years, that degree of executive recommendation which its intrinsic importance demands, and the good of the commonwealth requires, I have taken the liberty to address you for the purpose of bringing the subject before your minds for consideration at an early period of your labors. Some apology may perhaps be deemed necessary for the novel method I have adopted to accomplish my object. Novel as it may appear, it has nevertheless been taken with the utmost deference to your wisdom, and the sole desire to promote, in some humble manner, the great object that should be uppermost in the mind of a legislator, the good of the entire mass of his fellow citizens. * * * I have examined the proceedings of the legislature for the last twelve years in earnest expectation of seeing the subject of education discussed and disposed of in some good degree as it deserves at the hands of the appointed guardians of the commonwealth. And I am not alone in my disappointment, for I often hear my fellow-citizens expressing their deep regret at the inefficient character of our common schools and the wretched condition of our county seminaries, to say nothing of a liberal and enlightened policy in respect to our higher institutions of learning. * * * There are gentlemen on this floor representing rich and populous counties who, perhaps, never dreamed that one-sixth, or one-fourth, or one-third of their constituents can not read the records of their legislative wisdom nor peruse the eloquent speeches made in these halls! Putnam County, containing a university, has the sixth of its adults unable to read; Montgomery, worse yet, having a college, and yet every fifth adult can not read.

"Gentlemen from Jackson, Martin, Clay, and Dubois must feel themselves very much relieved from the burden of sending newspapers and legislative documents to those whom they represent, when informed that only a fraction over one-half of their constituents can read or write."

"It was a noble message," says President Tuttle in his memorial paper on Mills, "packed with startling facts, spiced with humor, and everywhere grand with common sense. And that message was the startling rill that has since swelled into the river. So well had 'One of the People' in his message pleaded the cause of public schools, that eight days afterward Governor Whitcomb, for the first time, opened his lips on the subject in some very pertinent words in his annual message. 'One of the people' had moved the Governor to speak for the public schools officially." The following year another message from the same source appeared on the desks of the members of the general assembly. It contained the same figures and statistics, repeated the story of Indiana's illiteracy and urged the legislature to action. The forcible statement of this illiteracy and the added exhortation recalled to the general assembly the imperative duty resting upon them of providing for

a general system of education as directed by the early Constitution. This could be done only by State assumption and control, by making out of a complex system, out of the diversified plans of various communities, a system of simplicity and unity, with a single head over all and with the various parts properly subordinated to appointed supervision.

Led by the force of Professor Mills's arguments and by similar influences throughout the State, the legislature passed an act at the session of 1847–'48, submitting to the voters of the State the question of free public schools. The discussion was conducted before the people of the State during the summer of 1848, and in October of that year the vote was taken. When the voter had deposited his ballot at the regular election of that year, he was asked by the judge of election, "Are you in favor of free schools?" and the vote was taken *viva voce*. When the votes were counted it was found that 78,523 had voted for free schools and 61,887 against them—leaving a majority of 16,886 in favor of the State's becoming responsible for the education of its children. "Vox populi, vox dei;" free schools had hereafter in Indiana this measure of divine endorsement.

Of those who answered "No" to this simple enquiry which now seems to us to admit of but one answer, some did so out of conscientious opposition to education by the State; others out of chronic opposition to every new idea, and others claimed to be voting in defense of their "liberty;" they would not have the State interfere with parent or child in supporting or attending school.

In December, 1848, "One of the People" issued his third message to the legislature. He analyzed the vote which had just been taken and suggested measures for carrying the will of the people into effect.

A year later, December, 1849, the fourth message appeared. It pressed with even greater persistency than former ones had done the importance of an advance step in education and the necessity of a new school law. "The Constitution" said this message addressed to the members of the general assembly, "has committed to your charge the primary schools, the only institutions to which nine-tenths of the rising generation will ever have access. Devise such measures on their behalf that on the legislature of 1849–'50 may rest the benediction of the youth of Indiana for having the wisdom to devise and the independence to enact such a system of free schools as may serve as a model to her younger sisters while it secures the proper education of her own rising generation." After showing the deficiencies of the present system and the remedy to be adopted, "One of the People" thus concludes this remarkable message: "With the fond hope that the statistics and suggestions contained in this address may be received by you, gentlemen legislators, as the contribution of one who desires to see the entire youth of Indiana enjoy the blessings of free schools, and the community experience the incidental results of such an education, and that all may have occasion to retain a long and lively remembrance of your legislative fidelity, wisdom, and patriotism, I am, etc., 'One of the People.'"

A similar work was being done throughout the State in the education of public sentiment by educators hardly less able, nor less interested than Mills. During these and several subsequent years, journals of State circulation were publishing able articles from their pens. Mills and his work may be taken as the types of a numerous kind. As a result of their effort, the legislature of 1848–'49 passed a new school law January 17, 1849. By this act, the office of county commissioner was established and the number of district trustees was limited to one in each district, instead of three as required by the law of 1837. The law levied for school purposes a tax of 10 cents on the hundred dollars, a poll-tax of 25 cents, and a tax on insurance companies. A special school tax for buildings and supplies, and a special tuition tax were to be allowed in districts where the inhabitants so desired.

Whatever may have been the desires and motives behind this law, it seemed almost like trifling with the necessities of the case. For it fatally provided that each county should have the option of ratification or rejection of its provisions at a succeeding election. In counties refusing to ratify, the old law was to remain unchanged. This left the root of the old difficulty untouched. The counties which the State most needed to control for the sake of intelligent citizenship were the ones which would be most apt to refuse their sanction. This is exactly what followed. The progressive counties took advantage of the new law and made some advancement. The others lagged still further behind. The new law, like that of 1837, ignored the cities and towns, leaving them to the influence of the seminaries. By an act of 1843 the State treasurer was made *ex officio* State superintendent of public instruction and was required to make an annual report to the general assembly. This was an important progressive step. Henceforth the common schools had a delegated official to represent them before the legislature and the people, though his duties to the schools were to be but incidental to his regular office. The first school reports, like all those which came from the State treasurer while serving in this capacity, were chiefly statistical—not professional, nor strictly educational reports.

The provision secured the interest of the State treasurer for the common schools, and one of them, James P. Drake, of Indianapolis, rendered good service in securing subsequent important legislation.

Meanwhile, many other matters of public interest and importance were attracting the attention of the people; and the legislature which passed this law passed an act upon the recommendation of Governor Whitcomb, calling a representative convention of the people to take into consideration the drafting of a new Constitution. This was the opportunity of the friends of education. In the work of this convention and in the immediate law which followed we find in all essential parts the Indiana system as it is.

CHAPTER IV.

THE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF INDIANA (Continued).

II.—THE NEW CONSTITUTION AND THE SYSTEM AS IT IS.

The new constitutional convention met at Indianapolis October 7, 1850. It finished its work February 10, 1851. An important part of that work related to the subject of free schools. The agitation of the five previous years and the experience which the schools had endured were not to prove fruitless. The public mind was ready for a radical change, and those who had struggled long and watched anxiously while the fundamental concerns of the schools were left to the care of changing and uncertain legislatures, had now resolved to secure a guarantee for a wise state guardianship of the schools by the fundamental provisions of the commonwealth.

Some of the best men of the State were members of this convention. They had seen clearly for years that the school interests of the State had suffered from these principal defects, and without the removal of these causes there could be no confident hope for the future. They would no longer entrust such important affairs to the caprice of legislatures, and experience had taught them the wisdom of guarding not the people but communities, falsely imagining themselves to be the people, against themselves.

They therefore proposed, while holding fast to that which was good in the old Constitution, and there was much good, to seek a guarantee in the fundamental law of the State on the three following points:

1. The careful guardianship and the permanent security of the common-school fund.
2. Uniformity in the operation of school laws.
3. State supervision and control.

The first two of these guarantees, it was not difficult to secure from the convention. While some good laws had been passed in care of the school fund, much revenue which should have accrued to that interest had been lost by carelessness and neglect. The importance of carefully defining and guarding this fund the more easily recommended itself to the members of the convention since some had previously dared to raise the question whether the State should keep this fund inviolate for the benefit of the schools. It was not hard to arrive at the will of the people upon this subject. Also the necessity of uniformity in the ap-

plication of the laws to the administration of the schools of the State had been thoroughly taught by a generation of experience, and upon this point all the friends of education seemed to be united. The principle encountered no serious opposition either in committee or in the convention.

But the idea of State supervision by State superintendency did not meet such easy passage. Generally the friends of the schools felt convinced that without some scheme of efficient supervision, the public-school system could not succeed. John I. Morrison, the master of the Salem Academy, and one of the ablest teachers of the State, was a member of the convention from Washington County. He was made the chairman of the Committee on Education. We do not know how many of the provisions of the Constitution relating to education were due to his suggestion, but he has left us the story of the eighth section of article VIII, which provides for the election of a State superintendent of public instruction. In the original draft of Mr. Morrison's report to the committee this section was included. By a majority vote of the committee, it was stricken out of the final report which was to go to the convention. This action Mr. Morrison regarded as "a fatal blow against the State's undertaking to educate the children of the State;" and in this exigency, in face of the adverse vote of the committee, he determined to submit the rejected article to the tender mercies of the convention itself. When the report of the committee came up, Mr. Morrison, weak from illness, was hardly able to stand before the convention. In answer to his brief but earnest appeal, the convention, as much moved, as Mr. Morrison afterward said, by his anxiety and the weakness of his condition, as by the strength of his appeal, accepted the section rejected in committee and ordered it engrossed by a vote of 78 to 50. Thus was secured to the State ever after a supervising educational officer.

The educational provisions of the new Constitution, comprising eight sections of article VIII, are as follows:

SECTION 1. Knowledge and learning generally diffused throughout a community being essential to the preservation of a free government, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to encourage, by all suitable means, moral, intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement, and to provide by law for a general and uniform system of common schools, wherein tuition shall be without charge and equally open to all.

SEC. 2. The common-school fund shall consist of the Congressional township fund and the lands belonging thereto;

The surplus revenue fund;

The saline fund, and the lands belonging thereto;

The bank-tax fund, and the fund arising from the one hundred and fourteenth section of the charter of the State bank of Indiana;

The fund to be derived from the sale of county seminaries, and the moneys and property heretofore held for such seminaries; from the fines assessed for breaches of the penal laws of the State, and from all forfeitures which may accrue;

All lands and other estate which shall escheat to the State for want of heirs or kindred entitled to the inheritance;

All lands that have been, or may hereafter be, granted to the State, where no special purpose is expressed in the grant, and the proceeds of the sales thereof, including the proceeds of the sales of the swamp lands granted to the State of Indiana by the act of Congress of the 28th of September, 1850, after deducting the expense of selecting and draining the same;

Taxes on the property of corporations that may be assessed by the general assembly for common school purposes.

SEC. 3. The principal of the common-school fund shall remain a perpetual fund, which may be increased, but shall never be diminished; and the income thereof shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools, and to no other purpose whatever.

SEC. 4. The general assembly shall invest in some safe and profitable manner all such portions of the common-school fund as have not heretofore been intrusted to the several counties; and shall make provision by law for the distribution among the several counties of the interest thereof.

SEC. 5. If any county shall fail to demand its proportion of such interest for common school purposes, the same shall be reinvested for the benefit of such county.

SEC. 6. The several counties shall be held liable for the preservation of so much of the said fund as may be intrusted to them, and for the payment of the annual interest thereon.

SEC. 7. All trust funds held by the State shall remain inviolate and be faithfully and exclusively applied to the purposes for which the trust was created.

SEC. 8. The general assembly shall provide for the election, by the voters of the State, of a State superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for two years, and whose duties and compensation shall be prescribed by law.

It will be noticed that six of these eight sections, all but the first and the last, relate to the subject of the common-school fund. It is a subject of the first importance and more than usual interest. The amount of that fund and the care with which it is guarded are justly a matter of pride to the people of Indiana.

The school fund of Indiana is divided into two distinct parts:

1. The Congressional township fund.
2. The common-school fund.

The first is easily comprehended. It came from the land given to Indiana by the United States when the State was admitted to the Union in 1816. It is the fund derived from the sale of the famous "sixteenth section." The enabling act passed by Congress April 18, 1816, "to enable the people of the Indiana Territory to form a Constitution and State government, and for the admission of such State into the Union," offered

to the people of the State "section numbered sixteen in every township, and when such section has been sold, granted, or disposed of, other lands equivalent thereto, for the use of schools." This gift by the General Government was upon the condition that the State "should provide, by an ordinance irrevocable without the consent of the United States," that this land should have exemption from taxation during the five years next succeeding its sale.

By an act of 1828, Congress granted power to the general assembly of Indiana to sell these lands, but not without the "consent of the inhabitants thereof." Provision was made in the same year for their sale by the agents of the State. The proceeds were to be loaned at interest, and the income to be applied to the use of schools.

Acts of 1833 and 1838 related to the sale and distribution of this fund. In the latter year, the Congressional township was made a body politic and corporate, and the township school commissioner was authorized to sell lands and lend the money for the use of the schools of the township. The legislation of these years was based upon the principle that the school section was intended for the exclusive appropriation of the respective townships. This seemed to be the verbal intent of the enabling act of Congress in 1816, which provided that the lands "should be granted to the inhabitants of such township." This interpretation of the grant was described by Dr. Larrabee, the first superintendent of public instruction, as an "inequality manifestly never intended," for by it there was given to some townships where the sixteenth section happened to include rich land, a large sum, sufficient for tuition throughout the year, and to others where the section was less valuable the fund would be altogether inadequate. As the larger part of the school revenue is now not derived from this source, the inequality is not so noticeable; yet some townships are still enjoying a larger income from that source than others. But for the fact that the fund is an inviolable one, the State would probably have converted it into a trust fund to be held by the State and distributed to the counties in proportion to school population. But the fact still remains that each township gets from this source in proportion to what its sixteenth section was sold for. From such considerations as these the general assembly in 1852 attempted to consolidate the funds.

In 1843 the counties were made liable to the Congressional townships for the preservation of this fund and the payment of interest. Nearly $28,000 had already been lost to this fund through the failure or dishonesty of mortgagees. There was then no constitutional provision for its security.

Thus we see that the Congressional township fund is the gift of the General Government for the cause of popular education in the State. Land has been sold from this donation amounting to 650,317 acres, making a fund of $2,487,806.39. Twelve counties report 5,160 acres still unsold.

The common-school fund is not so easily understood.

The constitutional convention of 1851, seeking light on educational finances, asked the Treasurer of the State for an itemized statement showing the sources of this fund. Then was revealed the folly of the State, in past years, that no comptrollership had been provided for these important revenues. No one knew exactly how much had come to the fund from each several source. By carelessness and neglect, large sums had been lost. No one could tell exactly how much nor to what accounts the lost amounts were due; while the sources of this fund are known, only an approximate statement can be made of the amounts which the various sources have furnished. The common-school fund and its sources may be seen in the following:

1. THE SURPLUS-REVENUE FUND.

In 1836 the United States Government was confronted with the problem of a "surplus." By act of Congress, approved June 23, 1836, this surplus revenue was distributed to the various States according to their representation in Congress. Indiana received $860,254. In 1837, the general assembly of the State provided that $537,502.96 of this amount should be applied to the school fund. It was distributed to the counties for the use of schools according to the number of polls.

By the terms of this grant the United States Government bound the State to return this money when called for by the Secretary of the United States Treasury, and it is therefore held subject to call.

2. THE BANK-TAX FUND.

The Secretary of the United States Treasury, Hon. R. B. Taney, withdrew the surplus revenues of the Government from the Second United States Bank in 1833. These funds were distributed among the various State banks, the "pet banks" of President Jackson, as they were called. This encouraged the increase of such banks. Indiana chartered such an institution January 28, 1834. Within the following year it received over $1,000,000 from the General Government.

On this money the bank paid no interest, while the money was loaned again at the current rate. The bank became a paying institution. The State owned a large number of shares, and the charter of the bank stipulated that at the winding up of the institution, 25 years later, the profits of the State should go to the school fund.[1]

It was also provided that a tax of 12½ cents on each share not held by the State should be deducted from the annual dividends and applied to the same fund. The terms of the charter were faithfully observed, and the school fund received from this source of the taxation on this stock more than $80,000. In 1845 this was distributed to the counties.

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[1] These profits were very large, and have been classified under the sinking fund explained hereafter.

3. THE SALINE FUND.

The enabling act of Congress in 1816 donated to Indiana all salt springs within the State, and the lands reserved near them, and such other lands as the President of the United States might deem necessary for working these springs—the whole amount of the reserve not to exceed 36 sections.

The lands were not to be sold nor leased for any period longer than ten years. In 1832 this restriction was removed, and in 1833 the lands were ordered to be sold and the proceeds appropriated to the common-school fund. The lands sold on this account amounted to 23,829½ acres—789½ acres more than the stipulated 36 sections, and the school fund has received from this source more than $85,000. This was distributed among the counties by the act of 1845.

These "salt lands" are now valuable health resorts, French Lick and West Baden Springs being among the most famous.

4. THE SINKING FUND.

This fund has been classed by some as properly belonging to the bank fund. Its origin is to be found in the State's relation to the State bank of 1834.

In order to take stock in the bank the State issued her bonds for the money, which it was necessary to borrow. In order to provide for the payment of these bonds and the interest thereon, a sinking fund was established by the bank law of 1834, which was to consist of all unapplied balances of the procured loans, the semiannual interest, and the dividends on the stock of the State. It was stipulated by this law that after paying these loans and all expenses relating thereto, "the residue of said fund shall be a permanent fund and be appropriated to the cause of common-school education in such manner as the General Assembly shall hereafter direct."

A board of sinking-fund commissioners was appointed to care for this fund.

In 1859–'60 a small part of the revenue derived from this source, $350,948.65, was distributed among the counties of the State. In 1865 the sinking-fund commission was abolished and the remainder of the fund was invested in State stocks and Government bonds, and on this account the State pays interest to the common-school fund in the significant sum of $3,904,783.22. The semiannual interest from this source is $117,143.49 The fund is safely secured to the purposes of education by the Constitution of the State.

5. THE SEMINARY FUND.

The State, under the Constitution of 1816, had not been very generous to the old county seminaries. The early Constitution itself provided that the money paid for exemption from military duty and fines for

breach of the penal laws should be given for the use of these seminaries. The act of 1852, soon to be considered, provided that "all county seminary buildings, grounds, and other property belonging to the State shall be sold by the county auditor and treasurer and the proceeds of such sales shall be added to the common-school fund."

The counties did not make exact reports of sales and it is not known what amount was received or lost from this source. The gain to the fund from this source is supposed to be in excess of $100,000.

The summary of these various school funds of Indiana is given by State Superintendent La Follette, in his report of 1888, as follows:

Common-school fund held by counties, June, 1888	$3,247,643.57
Non-negotiable bonds, interest paid by State	3,904,783.21
Congressional township fund	2,502,125.27
Total	9,654,552.55

This is an increase of nearly $1,000,000 since the Centennial exhibit of 1876, and the school revenues have increased more than $200,000 within the same time.

It was the purpose of the general assembly, in the first school law enacted under the new Constitution, to consolidate all these funds into one common fund, but the law to this effect was declared unconstitutional by the supreme court in 1854, the court holding that the Congressional township fund could not be merged with the others.

This magnificent sum, now nearly $10,000,000, shall remain, according to the fundamental law of the State, "*a perpetual fund, which may be increased but shall never be diminished, the income thereof shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools and to no other purpose whatever.*"

This is a significant passage in the Constitution of Indiana. It is the solemn guarantee of the State that the school fund shall be zealously guarded and never diverted from the purposes of education. The provision of the Constitution has been carried out in law, and the school fund is secured from loss by as careful a scheme as human ingenuity and legal science can devise. It may be truly said that, while the fund will constantly increase through the provisions made by the Constitution and the law—from swamp lands, fines, escheats, forfeitures, and licenses—it is virtually impossible for the fund to grow less. It is always gaining, and it can never lose. The moneys intrusted to the counties are in the care of the county auditors. The State is responsible to the fund—the counties are responsible to the State—the auditors are responsible to the counties. Each county is charged 6 per cent. of all the money intrusted to it. This the county pays, whether or not its auditor succeeds in making safe loans of the amount to individuals. The auditor may lend from this fund only on the security of first mortgage on real estate, and never in amount more than half the appraised value of the mortgaged property. This provision, in almost all instances,

secures the fund. But if by mistake or fraud, if by any connivance of auditor, assessor, and borrower, more of the fund be loaned to an individual than his mortgaged property will make good at public sale, any consequent loss falls, not upon the fund, the last loser in any conceivable emergency, nor upon the State, but upon the county itself. The counties are called to the strictest account for every cent of the school fund intrusted to their care.

It is interesting to notice also how strictly is interpreted the provision that no part of the income of this fund can be used for any other purpose than for tuition in the common schools. None of it can b diverted for buildings, grounds, or equipments. The superintendent of schools in incorporated cities and towns can not be paid from this source; a special tuition tax has been necessary to meet the expenses of these officers, and their salaries come from a distinct and separate source.

In addition to the income for tuition which comes from the interest on the various funds which we have described, the State, by a general law, has assessed *sixteen cents on the hundred dollars*, and fifty cents on each poll for tuition purposes. This, with the interest from the Congressional and common-school funds, brings a yearly revenue to the State for school purposes of about *five and a quarter millions of dollars.* This sum Indiana is spending every year for the education of her children in her primary schools.

It is interesting to reflect in this connection on the influence of the General Government in this direction. It has been constantly a beneficent influence. The United States Government laid the foundation of Indiana's school fund in the grant of the sixteenth section. It had previously given educational encouragement to the State in the grant of university and seminary lands; it added to the common-school fund by the saline reservations of 1816, and made possible further increase by the grant of the swamp lands in 1850, while the deposits of the United States in 1834 were a very material aid in enabling the State to realize such a princely sum to the school fund by the operation of the old State bank. We venture to think that if accounts were strictly reckoned the people of Indiana would find themselves indebted to the General Government not only for the conception and the origin of their school fund, but for the major part of the amount into which it has grown. Indiana is under obligation in many ways to the Government of the United States. In no way may that obligation be more clearly seen than in the history of Indiana education. The States of the Northwest have not been unmindful of the source of so great a benefit; their deep national spirit and their ardent devotion to the Union have proven a memorable reciprocal strength.

The year after the Constitution was adopted which gave a fundamental guarantee to the school fund, a new general school law was passed by the assembly. This was the law of June 14, 1852. It attempted to consolidate the various school funds and it provided for a school tax of

10 cents on the hundred dollars. It made school corporations out of the towns and cities and civil townships, and provided for special corporation taxes for the support of schools and the construction of buildings. Township libraries were also provided for in this year, and the libraries resulting from this provision were for many years afterward very valuable in an educational way among the people.

The provisions of this law consolidating the funds and authorizing special tuition taxes were soon declared unconstitutional by the supreme court, the latter provision because inconsistent with the requirement that the school law should be "general and uniform."

This provision, authorizing a special tuition levy, was revived in 1855 through the influence of the lately organized State Teachers' Association, and the privilege was conferred on incorporated cities and towns. In 1857 it was again declared unconstitutional. In 1867 the special tuition tax was again revived and the privilege conferred upon *all* school corporations. This provision has never been set aside, and school trustees may now assess taxes for special purposes at as high a rate as 25 cents on the hundred dollars.

The law of 1852 contained the substance of the present system. It has been many times amended and strengthened. It is not our purpose to trace in this connection the various slight changes through which it has gone. These additions and changes are noticed in the presentation of the system as it is to-day.

Although the State has taken no backward step in its common-school law since 1852, and although the progress of its schools since that time has been the occasion of frequent congratulatory remark, it must not be supposed that the course of free schools has always run smooth among the people. The free-school system, in spite of the many advantages to recommend it, and strong friends to defend it, had to overcome many obstacles and discouragements; it met many unreasoning, dogged, and persistent enemies. Prejudice and ignorance are always stubborn foes to encounter. The old bourbon spirit of opposition, which seems never open to an idea nor subject to death, planted itself squarely to resist the introduction and operation of the new system. Mr. E. P. Cole, one of the ablest educational leaders of that time, and one of the few who were looking a generation ahead, to a condition which the people have since realized, read a paper before the State Teachers' Association August 25, 1857, on the subject of "Indiana—Her educational condition and prospects." This was more than five years after the enactment of the new law. Yet from this paper we learn what the opposition to the free system was in many parts of the State. And he spoke "not alone of the newer and more uncultivated portions of the State, but of those parts claiming a large share of refinement and intelligence."

One county for two successive elections returned a majority of 1,900 against the establishment of the free-school system within her boundaries.

"From a certain class of people," says Mr. Cole, "we frequently hear language like the following: 'We have lived to old age and made money, too, without any of this book-learning, whose only tendency is to make scoundrels of men, and wishing to shield our children from all such malign influences, we intend that they, too, shall grow up as their parents before them, ignorant of the villainies superinduced by the district school.' But the 75,000 illiterate must by no means bear all the blame of an opposition to our school system. This opposition has its representatives among all classes of our population, and the motives are almost as various as are the opposers; but various as are the motives, they are unsanctified by a single generous, patriotic or intelligent feeling. * * * There are not more than three cities in our State where the question of these schools seems to be settled in the affirmative. There are always men who prefer the exclusiveness of private schools, in which the nobility of their children shall not be tainted by contact with the vulgar crowd attendant upon the free schools. Others resist on account of the tax; having no children of their own, they ignore their relation to the common brotherhood of man, and, in the language of their great exemplar, exclaim, 'Am I my brother's keeper?' Corporations forget, purposely, too, to provide the necessary tax, and the school, after having diffused for a while a sound and virtuous education and convinced the people of its superior excellence, is mercilessly garroted. * * * There has not, we believe, been a single session of our legislature since the adoption of the new Constitution, during which a bitter hostility to our school system has not manifested itself. At two several sessions strenuous efforts were made to abolish the office of superintendent of public instruction, and on both occasions the members making the same were so ignorant of the Constitution whose interests they had sworn to subserve, that they did not know that the abolition of the office could not be effected by the legislature, being constitutionally provided for. Thwarted at this point, another tack was taken and an effort made to virtually accomplish the same end by so reducing the salary that a perpetual vacancy would be insured. It was only at the last session that a motion was made to postpone indefinitely the operation of the school law. And all efforts to improve that law and make it more efficient were steadily and persistently rejected. These facts do not redound much, we admit, to the credit of those seeking to legislate for the imperishable interests of a great and growing State."

This is sufficient to show the character of the opposition which the schools endured. But the stars in their courses fought against the enemies of the schools. The new movement was one of the destined reforms which are proverbial for never retracing their steps. The spirits of the men and women fighting for the schools were stronger than those which fought against them.

Changing conditions which touched the lives of the people, the fact

of improvement, which the most obtuse could understand and the most selfish could not gainsay, presented arguments in support of the new system, which neither indifference nor obstinacy could overcome. Free schools gradually made their way to every county of the State. No valuable feature of the school law was ever repealed, and the new system grew in favor in the State as rapidly, after its first few years of trial, as the friends of the cause had a right to expect from a movement of such size and importance.

One of the most potent influences leading in this direction was the organization of the Indiana State Teachers' Association. No one who is careful to appreciate properly the forces which have made for the progress of education in Indiana will neglect the estimation of this organized body of teachers. They have been the recognized leaders in every forward educational movement. Usually a wise and conservative body of men and women, the association has always had a vigorous, if not a decisive, influence in shaping the school legislation of the State. No other influence has been more constant and beneficial in this direction. Never radical in its demand for change unless it was sure of being right, always conservative if there were probabilities of its going wrong, the voice of the association has invariably carried great weight in the legislative councils of the State. More than a thousand teachers gather at its annual meetings, and in the 33 years of its history it has produced an educational literature of no mean value. Through this society of Indiana teachers have been proposed and worked out various schemes for the improvement of the schools and the methods of teaching. The Northern and Southern Associations are offshoots from this, and the three annual gatherings exert an appreciable influence on the public toward deeper interest in educational affairs.

The first convention of Indiana teachers of which we have record was held as early as 1836. Governor Noble presided at a teachers' convention in that year at Indianapolis, and Dr. Andrew Wylie, president of the State University, made the principal address. There was a Northern Indiana Teachers' Institute in 1849 and for several subsequent years, and there were a number of county associations organized under the operations of the old school laws. These were mostly temporary and spasmodic. The present organization, known as the State Teachers' Association, was organized at Indianapolis December 25, 1854. Mills was then State superintendent. In accordance with resolutions previously passed by "Teachers' Associations" which met at Shelbyville and Salem, a circular was issued for the purpose of calling a convention of practical teachers with a view to the organization of a permanent State teachers' association. This circular was signed by the following persons: Caleb Mills, M. M. C. Hobbs, B. T. Hoyt, E. P. Cole, Rufus Patch, Lewis A. Ester, B. L. Lang, T. Naylor, J. S. Ferris, O. J. Wilson, J. Bright, R. B. Abbott, G. W. Hoss, Cyrus Nutt, Geo. A. Chase, Charles Barnes, James G. May, Silas Baily, John Cooper.

At the first sessions of the association steps were taken for the establishment of a school journal as an organ of the teachers, and in consequence of this organized effort, the Indiana School Journal began publication in 1856. For a number of years, until 1865, the Journal was the organ of the State Association, edited by committees appointed for that purpose at the annual meeting. It had a "Resident editor," a "Mathematical editor," and seven "Associate editors." The names of these on the title page of volume II, we find as follows:

GEORGE B. STONE, Indianapolis.
W. D. HENKLE, Richmond.

Associates.

George A. Chase, Brookville.
Rev. R. A. Abbott, Dunlapsville.
Miss M. F. Wells, New Albany.
Miss M. J. Chamberlain, Indianapolis.
E. P. Cole, Bloomington.
R. M. Johnson, La Porte.
Miss Cynthia M. Bishop, Richmond.

Mr. E. P. Cole made a tour of the State in the interest of the journal, soliciting support for the new enterprise, collecting information and statistics on the condition of the public schools, and pressing the cause of free schools on the people. Though the journal at that time was a hazardous financial enterprise, the vigor thrown into its first year's management assured its success. The teachers thereafter had a means of speaking to each other and to the people—a lever with which to raise the educational public sentiment of the State. Since that time the Indiana School Journal has been an indispensable agency in the pedagogical concerns and educational progress of Indiana, and while it has gradually and naturally passed to individual ownership, it is not less to-day than when inaugurated, except in a technical sense, the organ and representative of the State Teachers' Association and of the fourteen thousand teachers of Indiana. It has been for twenty-five years under the business management and editorship of Mr. W. A. Bell, who is probably personally known to every teacher of three years' standing in the State. The Indiana School Journal has grown with the State schools of which it is the organ, and it stands to-day with the times, or in advance of them, as an educational journal of the first rank. It has proven a constant source of strength in the defense of the free common schools, in the promotion of wise legislation, and for the advancement of a better and higher education. Its files contain a record of the progress of educational thought in Indiana for a third of a century, and its influence and agency as an element in this progress can not be overlooked.

Turning from the history of the development of the Indiana school system, we have now to look to the operation of the system under the present school law of the State. This presents to us the system as it is.

The claim has been repeatedly made by representative men of Indiana that their State has one of the best educational systems in the Union, and the excellency of the Indiana school law has been readily conceded by professional educators who have inquired into the relative merits of State systems. The law embodies two generations of experience. The educational polity of Indiana will be understood by noticing, in brief outline, the official bodies created by this law, and a summary of their most important duties under its operation. It is these bodies and the duties they perform under the law which constitute the "common-school system" of the State.

The following outline[1] will aid the reader in understanding the description of the officers and functions which the system comprises:

Officers:
- Superintendent of public instruction.
- State board of education (superintendent being president).
- County superintendent.
- City and town trustees.
- Township trustees.

Institutions, general:
- Ungraded schools.
- District graded schools.
- Town and city schools.

University system:
- State University (at Bloomington).
- State Normal School (at Terre Haute).
- Purdue Industrial University (at Lafayette).

Institutions, charitable:
- School for the Blind, Indianapolis.
- School for Deaf-Mutes, Indianapolis.
- Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Knightstown.

Institutions, reformatory:
- Boys' Reformatory, Plainfield.
- Girls' Reformatory, Indianapolis.

Institutions, special:
- County and township institutes (compulsory).
- State Teachers' Association (voluntary).

1. THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

This officer is elected biennially by the voters of the State. It is his duty to exercise a general superintendence of the school affairs of the State, to manage the funds and revenues, to guard against deficits to the fund in any county, to interpret the school law, to make reports to the Governor and the general assembly, to apportion revenue among the counties, to publish and distribute the school laws, to compile school statistics, and to visit for supervision the various counties of the State.

[1] Smart's Report, 1880.

The circumstances connected with the origin of this office we have already related. During the 38 years of its existence it has been filled by leading educators of the State. While the office is the object of party candidacy, it has not suffered from malign partisan influences, and the people exercise a large measure of independence in their election.

The office has been filled as follows: November, 1852, William Clark Larrabee;[1] November, 1854, Caleb Mills;[1] February, 1857, William Clark Larrabee;[1] February, 1859, Samuel Lyman Rugg;[1] February, 1861, Miles Johnson Fletcher;[1] May, 1862, Samuel Kleinfelder Hosbour (appointed to fill vacancy);[1] November, 1862, Samuel Lyman Rugg;[1] March, 1865, George Washington Hoss; October, 1868, Barnabas Coffin Hobbs; March, 1871, Milton Bledsoe Hopkins;[1] August, 1874, Alexander Campbell Hopkins (appointed to fill vacancy); March, 1875, James Henry Smart; March, 1881, John McKnight Bloss; March, 1883, John Walker Holcombe; March, 1887, Harvey M. La Follette; March, 1891, H. D. Voris.

2. THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

This is an *ex officio* body of professional educators. The membership of the board consists of the following officers:

1. The Superintendent of Public Instruction, president *ex officio*.
2. The Governor of the State.
3. The President of the State University.
4. The President of Purdue University.[2]
5. The President of the State Normal School.
6. The Superintendents of the city schools in the three largest cities, of the State.

These cities, since the organization of the Board, have been Indianapolis, Evansville, and Fort Wayne; but Fort Wayne has been lately supplanted by Terre Haute.

It is the duty of this Board to examine applicants for State certificates, to prescribe examinations for professional eight-years' licenses, to prepare uniform questions to be used by county superintendents in their examinations of teachers, and to take cognizance of and determine all other matters in the administration of the school system not otherwise provided for. The State Board was created in 1852, and consisted at first of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Governor, Secretary, Treasurer, and Auditor of State. The Attorney-General became a member in 1855. It was not until 1865 that the Board was given its professional constituency, since which time it has been composed as at present, excepting that the President of Purdue University was not made a member until 1875.

It will be seen that the authority and province of this Board are not very clearly defined. There is a growing sentiment in the State, noticeable in the expressions of educational assemblies, in favor of an exten-

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[1] Deceased.

[2] Purdue University is the State Agricultural and Mechanical School.

sion and a more accurate definition of the powers of the State Board of Education. The proposition is seriously considered of increasing its membership by the addition of three county superintendents to be appointed by the Governor, only two of whom may be members of the same political party. This was first proposed by Hon. J. W. Holcombe, State Superintendent, in 1885, and was endorsed the following year by the Board itself. The proposition has since been endorsed by the State School Journal and the State Teachers' Association. With the enlargement of its membership Superintendent Holcombe suggested the following extension of its jurisdiction, all of which go to show the tendency toward the control of local education by the State:

1. It should be given full powers to fix the qualifications of teachers for the different classes of schools, to determine the grades and duration of their licenses, and, through the county superintendents, to provide for and direct their examinations.

2. It should be empowered to prescribe courses of study for the schools of different grades and classes.

3. It should be empowered to make general rules and regulations regarding the location and construction of schoolhouses.

4. It should be given full supervisory control of the county and township institutes.

5. It should be empowered to make general rules and regulations for the government of county boards of education, in the adoption of text-books and apparatus, and for the government of trustees in the purchase of school furniture and supplies.

The following is the list of members of the present (1889) State Board of Education:

Harvey M. La Follette,[1] *President, Superintendent of Public Instruction.*
L. H. Jones, *Secretary, Superintendent of Indianapolis Public Schools.*
James H. Smart, *President of Purdue University.*
David S. Jordan, *President of Indiana University.*
W. W. Parsons, *President of State Normal School.*
J. W. Layne, *Superintendent of Evansville Public Schools.*
W. H. Wiley, *Superintendent of Terre Haute Public Schools.*
Alvin P. Hovey, *Governor of Indiana.*

3. THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

These supervising officers, one in each county, are appointed biennially by the township trustees. In this election the county auditor has the casting vote in case of a tie, and the board of county commissioners has the power of dismissal for immorality or incompetency.

It is the duty of the county superintendent to examine and license the teachers, to direct and superintend their work, to revoke licenses for cause, to hold county institutes, to attend and preside at township institutes, to compile educational and financial statistics for the county, and to report these statistics to the State department of public instruc-

[1] Succeeded in 1891 by H. D. Voris.

tion, to carry out the directions of the State superintendent and of the State board of education, and to have a general superintendence of the schools of his county.

The county superintendency has been very efficient in securing the better organization and classification of the school machinery of the State. The superintendents are the successors of the old examiners, whose only duty was to examine applicants and to issue teachers' licenses to the worthy (?) candidates. This left the teachers of the various townships without supervision, and they were not accountable to any professional head. Indiana spends annually over $5,000,000 for public instruction. It is asserted by the State superintendent of public instruction, that the supervision which these officers afford "secures an application and benefit 25 to 50 per cent. greater than had been secured before such improvement; there has been, commercially speaking, a material gain by such improvement of over $1,000,000 value received annually."

"No county official," says Superintendent La Follette, in his last report, "is required to do anything like the amount of labor with his own hand and brain that is demanded of the county superintendent. To all kinds of weather he must be exposed in visitation and inspection of schools, spending upon the average more than 100 days in such manner. He must annually grade, with technical skill and exactness, several thousand manuscripts prepared by several hundred different applicants for licenses; and with the skill of a specialist, and with a judgment of human nature required of few, he must take into consideration the special fitness of such applicant in previous school work, and uninfluenced by personal considerations, and local, personal, or political pressure, must so impartially determine upon such applicants as to secure the best possible return to the State for the public money thus expended."

4. THE SCHOOL TRUSTEES.

Every civil township and incorporated city and town in the several counties of the State is a distinct municipal corporation for school purposes. In each civil township there is one trustee, elected biennially by the people. In each incorporated city or town there is a "school board," consisting of three school trustees appointed consecutively for a term of three years by the town board or city council. These school boards and the township trustee are charged with the ownership and management of school property within their jurisdiction; they employ teachers, receive the special school revenue and the revenue for tuition, levy special taxes for local educational purposes, have the management of township institutes, and make financial and statistical reports to county superintendents and county commissioners. Provision is also made that in cities of 30,000 inhabitants or more there may be elected by the voters of the city a board of school commissioners. There must be one commissioner for each school district, and in the city as many school districts as there are wards.

This board of school commissioners performs all the functions of the board of school trustees of smaller cities and towns, and, in addition, is empowered to district the city for school purposes, to levy all taxes for building, tuition, and library uses, to examine and license teachers for the city schools, to purchase grounds, construct buildings, and to exercise all ordinary functions in the management of schools. All parts of the general school law, not inconsistent with the provisions creating and governing the board, are applicable to the system of common schools in the city. The commissioners serve for a term of three years, without pay. Indianapolis is the only city of the State which has taken advantage of this provision.

THE TOWNSHIP TRUSTEE.

The township trustee is an officer worthy of special notice. There is not a more important officer in the affairs of the State. In all matters pertaining to the local interests of the people, he is vested with powers and duties of the highest moment. The "civil township" and the "school township," though conterminous in territory, and popularly identical in name, are yet distinct corporations in law. The trustee of the civil township is *ex officio* "school trustee" of the township. As civil trustee he has many important functions entirely distinct from any educational relation, such as the care of the poor and the superintendence of roads. But it is as township school trustee that his duties and powers are most interesting. Under the law and by the precedent of legal decisions, he stands clothed with almost autocratic powers in all school affairs. In all actual power he is the corporation. The voters and tax-payers of the township have not much voice or part in managing the details of educational affairs, except as may be allowed them by the trustee. Though this officer is held liable for all revenues and funds intrusted to him, and must make accurate and regular reports concerning such funds, and though he may not borrow money, with power to bind his township for its payment, yet he may execute his notes for debts which he contracts in the purchase of furniture, for which his corporation is liable. There is no limit to the indebtedness which he may incur for a township, short of the constitutional limit of 2 per cent. on the value of taxable property. This absolute power, or irresponsibility, vested in a single officer, has been the source of much annoyance and dissatisfaction, and, in frequent and recent instances, of malfeasance in office. This part of the school law will probably be the next important feature to receive amendment.

A memorial of the Indiana Teachers' Association to the general assembly of the State, adopted in annual session December 28, 1888, advises that township trustees should take their office upon the first Monday in August after their election. This would be at the beginning of the financial and statistical school year, and would save the double reports on election years now required, and which are a source of much annoy-

ance to county and State officials. The incoming trustee should make the school levy for the ensuing year at the time of his entrance upon his official duties in August. The memorial further advises that the township trustee should be given power to fix the time of opening of all school terms. And all township orders for sums greater than $5 should be invalid unless recorded or registered in the county auditor's office within 30 days after their issue, and there should be a requirement for the annual publication by the county auditor of the itemized indebtedness of every school and civil corporation in the county, a report of such indebtedness to be included within the annual reports of all township and corporation officials.

Any early changes in the school law of the State will probably be along these lines.

A school director, in each school district, under the direction of the trustee, has the care of the schoolhouse, presides at school meetings of the patrons, and has charge, subject to appeal, of the local school affairs of the district.

5. THE COUNTY BOARD OF EDUCATION.

This consists of the township trustees and the chairmen of the school trustees of each town or city in the county, with the county superintendent as president *ex officio*. This body, which meets semiannually, may adopt the text-books for the county outside of the incorporated cities and towns,[1] and it considers in its collective capacity the general needs and wants of the schools. As a quasi corporation it has no authority to contract, to sue or be sued, nor has it any control of revenues nor power to order any expenditure. It is chiefly an advisory board with the purpose of bringing the schools of the county to a uniform system.

In addition to these institutions for common schools, and the special institutions of education for benevolent purposes, the State is provided, in the completion of its system, with three institutions of higher learning: The State University, literary and scientific; Purdue University, agricultural and mechanical; and the State Normal School, for the professional training of teachers. Sketches of the history and work of these institutions follow in subsequent pages.

On the 31st of July, 1888, Indiana owned 9,882 schoolhouses valued at $13,491,872, and school apparatus of the value of $809,942, a total valuation of $14,751,814. She had 100 efficient high schools commissioned by the State board of education to prepare pupils for the Freshmen classes of the colleges and universities of the State. She had a force of 14,202 teachers and 92 county superintendents, more than 10,000 of whom meet yearly at the educational assembly of the county institute. There was an enrollment of 514,463 children in her schools, with an average daily attendance of 79 per cent. upon the enrollment.

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[1] The new school law of 1889, making text-books uniform throughout the State, relieves the county board of this function.

Her total school revenue for the school year, spent in the interest of free public education, was $5,235,031.98, and the fund always growing from which her revenue is derived had reached at this date the magnificent sum of $9,654,000.

To-day in Indiana a child of six years may enter the primary grade of any school in the State, and if he earn promotion, may pass by graduation to the honor of a diploma from the State University. Whether he be in the better classified graded school of city or town, or in the common district school of the country, he may pass by term or yearly promotions through the common-school grades, through the town or city high school, or some central township high school to a post-graduate course in higher education. The State board of education has commissioned various high schools and academies in the cities and towns of the State as preparatory schools for its institutions of higher learning. If the high-school graduate does not choose to take a scientific or literary training in the State University, the State Normal school offers him professional training as a teacher; and Purdue University, the agricultural and mechanical institution of the State, offers to him opportunities in these directions. On a certificate of promotion, he is passed as readily from a commissioned high school to the Freshman class of any of these higher institutions as from one grade in a grammar school to another. All parts of the system are well articulated. The State has assumed all the functions of education in the development of the citizen, and is now realizing her early Constitution, inasmuch as she is attending to the education of her children from the most elementary branches to the advanced learning of the university. The elementary schools are a continually widening and strengthening base; the university is a continually growing structure. These are interdependent and mutually supporting. In these State institutions of all grades there are offered equal opportunities for all and special privileges for none. Indiana has fully given her adherence to the idea of State superintendence in education.

CHAPTER V.

THE INDIANA SEMINARY.

By the act of Congress of April 18, 1816, provision was made for the admission of Indiana into the Union. By that act certain propositions were made to the people of the proposed new State for "their free acceptance or rejection." Two of these related to education, and one was a proposition on the part of the Federal Government to donate to the new State a township of land "for the use of a seminary of learning."

Indiana was admitted to the Union under a Constitution adopted at Corydon, June 19, 1816. This Constitution recognized the necessity of a free common-school system for the people; it provided for the improvement of the school lands of the State, forbade the sale of any such lands prior to the year 1820, and provided that all money received thereafter from the sale of these lands should remain a permanent and exclusive fund for the "purpose of promoting the interest of literature and the sciences, and for the support of seminaries and public schools." It was also provided, as we have previously noticed, that "it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State University, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all."

This was the first formal action of the State toward the establishment of an institution which subsequently became the State University. It is worthy of notice that the new Constitution, adopted in 1851, did not mention a State University. But at that time the University of the State was an established public institution. It was so recognized by special statute in 1852. It had been for more than a score of years exerting a strong educational influence in the State, while in all the years between 1816 and 1851 the early provision in the first Constitution for a system of free common schools had never been enacted into law or put into successful operation by the legislature and people of the State. Thus Indiana affords a very clear illustration of the well-known truth in the history of education that institutions of the higher learning precede—are in themselves the conditions precedent to—the establishment, operation, and maintenance of common schools. As President Jordan has said, "the growth in educational systems is from above, downwards. In historical sequence Oxford must precede Rugby, and the German

university must come before the gymnasium." From the State University and similar institutions the people received the educational life and sentiment which made free schools possible.

The settled parts of Indiana, at the time of its admission as a State, were confined to a narrow fringe of territory extending down the Ohio border from Fort Wayne to the Ohio River, down that stream to the Wabash, and up the Wabash to Vincennes. A great part of southern Indiana, nearly all of central, and all of northern Indiana was a wilderness. The voting population was 12,112, the total white population was 63,837. Schools were few and far between. There were no public funds, no public schoolhouses, and but few teachers; and the teachers who had wandered from the East or South into this wilderness were usually ill-qualified for service. Monroe County, the future seat of the "Seminary," was then a part of Orange County, and was not laid off as a separate county until 1818. But few inhabitants had reached a point so far north in the migration from the southeast. The northern part of the county was the southern limit of what was known as the "new purchase," which embraced the central and northern parts of the State, and part of Illinois.

"By a treaty made with the Delawares and some other Indians in the fall of 1818, the southern Indiana boundary line was set back well up toward the sources of the Wabash River, and two years thereafter the door to all central Indiana, then and long after known as the 'new purchase,' was thrown open to an anxious throng of hardy pioneer home-hunters. Before the Indians had ceased to occupy the new purchase, the advance guard of white settlers began to invade it, and by the fall of 1820 the sound of the pioneer's axe was heard in every county watered by the White River from the 'Forks' to its sources. The immigrants came by way of the Indian trails or cut through the woods. Some came in wagons and some in sleds. Many packed in on horseback and a few came on foot. In 1820 the census showed a population of a little more than 147,000 as against 64,000 of five years before, and by 1825 it had mounted up to a quarter of a million."[1]

On January 20, 1820, as soon as the four years during which the Constitution required the lands to be withheld from sale had expired, the general assembly in session at Corydon established a "State Seminary" at Bloomington. Governor Jennings, in his message to the assembly, had said:

"The Constitution has made it the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education. The lands received for the use of the seminary of learning are vested in the legislature, to be appropriated solely for that purpose, and it is submitted to your consideration whether the location of such an institution upon, or near, such lands, would not greatly enhance their value and enlarge the funds for a purpose so important.

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[1] D. D. Banta: "Seminary Period of the University."

It is believed that the Seminary Township, situated in Monroe County, would afford a site combining the advantages of fertility of soil with a healthy climate, as well as a position sufficiently central to the various sections of the State. To authorize the sale of a portion of these lands under judicious regulations would increase the value of the residue, and the sooner enable us to lay the foundations of an institution so desirable."

This part of the message was on the 11th of December referred by the house of representatives to a committee of seven, of which Mr. Ross of Clark County was chairman, with leave to report by bill or otherwise. On the 31st of December, twenty days after the reference, Mr. Ross, on behalf of his committee, reported a bill to establish a seminary, which, after two readings, was referred to a committee of the whole house and was made a special order for the following day. But upon the next day and for several days following, various matters of local interest to the members absorbed their attention. But on the 11th of January the bill was taken up by the house, and passed with "sundry amendments."

Four days later the bill was passed in the senate with some amendments thereto, one of which was to vest in the trustees of the State Seminary the seminary lands in Gibson County, and the other was to strike from the bill the following: "*Provided*, That 2,000 acres of land in Monroe County vested in the trustees be forever reserved by said trustees as a glebe for the said seminary and the use of the professors thereof." Finally, the bill was passed only by the casting vote of Lieut. Gov. Ratliffe Boon, the presiding officer of the senate. The house concurred in some of the amendments of the senate and rejected others, and upon the return of the bill to the senate it came to its final passage on January 20, 1820. This, then, may be said to be the day of the founding of Indiana Seminary, which subsequently developed into Indiana University.

The first section of this act named for the trustees of the new seminary Charles Dewey, Jonathan Lindley, David H. Maxwell, John M. Jenkins, Jonathan Nichols, and William Lowe, they and their successors in office to have perpetual succession. They were authorized to meet in Bloomington on the first Monday of the following June and select "an eligible and convenient site for the seminary." It was made their duty to appoint an agent to lay off and sell lands not exceeding 640 acres near Bloomington, the seat of the seminary. As soon as the trustees should deem it expedient they were to "proceed to the erection of a suitable building for a State seminary, and also a suitable and commodious house for a professor." They were to report to the next general assembly their proceedings, together with a plan of buildings by them erected. In their report to the next legislature the trustees say:

"The site chosen is almost one-quarter of a mile due south from Bloomington, on a beautiful eminence and convenient to an excellent spring of water, the only one on the section selected that could with convenience answer the purposes of a seminary."

At this time the population of Bloomington did not exceed 300 souls. Migration was first directed to this county by the location there of the new Seminary Township by President Monroe. Among those who came on this account was Dr. David H. Maxwell, of Madison, Jefferson County. He came to Monroe County in 1819. Dr. Maxwell was full of energy and zeal in behalf of education. He went to the State capital at Corydon to use his influence with members of the legislature for the purpose of securing the location of the proposed "State Seminary" at Bloomington. With several of the members of this assembly Dr. Maxwell had served in the Constitutional Convention of 1816. It was chiefly through his influence that a site so far north was chosen for the seminary. Dr. Maxwell was immediately made a member of the first board of trustees, a position which he occupied with but little intermission throughout his life. During the seminary period, while the institution was struggling for establishment, from 1820 to 1825 especially, he was not only the presiding officer of the board, but was also its executive officer and corresponding secretary, having the erection of new buildings under his supervision, carrying on a heavy correspondence with prominent men throughout the State in behalf of the institution, while having to contend with a disaffected element at home. Solely on behalf of the seminary he solicited election to the legislature, and from 1821 to 1826 he was a member either of the lower house (where he was once Speaker) or of the senate, and at all times he was especially interested in watching jealously the affairs of the new seminary. In the establishment of institutions it seems that the life and services of some one man are paramount and essential. In the establishment of the Indiana Seminary Dr. David H. Maxwell was the essential man.

The legislature in 1825 authorized the election by the board of a principal and professor of languages, and on May 1 of that year the institution was opened to the public. Prof. Baynard R. Hall was the first teacher, and for the first few years he was the "faculty" of the seminary. He was a man of excellent classical attainments, and while the general assembly of the State was legislating the seminary into existence he was finishing his course at Union College under the tuition of the celebrated Dr. Nott. In his book, entitled "The New Purchase, or Seven and a Half Years in the Far West," he gives a vivid idea of the primitive habits of the time. This new school was a State Seminary, therefore it belonged to the "people;" instruction was to be "free" in all branches, including the most elementary. The consequence was a perfect stampede from the private schools of the town, and the principal was under the necessity of sending the pupils back to their schools. In sifting the applicants only ten were found qual-

ified for entrance. As the warm weather approached, the "ten boys and young gentlemen" came to recitations without coats, and "as the thermometer arose, they came without shoes." After the manner of the time, the judge on the bench sat in court "without coat and cravat, with his feet modestly reposed on the upper rostrum, showing his boot soles to the bystanders and lawyers." The lawyers were in their shirt sleeves and the Governor of the State, when he appeared on the "stump," had the same careless dress and manner. In the election of the second teacher, the "people" proposed to have a voice. A mass meeting, with a local politician in front as spokesman, marched to where the Board of Trustees were in session and made known their demands. But the trustees, who had received intimation of their coming, speedily determined the election, whereupon the opposers, moved partly by sectarian motives, and partly by the spirit of pure democracy, carried their complaint to the State legislature. They objected to a "foreigner" in their college, though the accepted candidate was recognized as a scholarly gentleman, the best qualified of all the applicants, and lived no farther away than the neighboring State of Kentucky. But it was suspected by the men who opposed his election that he "smelled of Presbyterianism."

From such things we have some idea of the social conditions during the first years of the "State Seminary" and "college." Prof. John H. Harney, at whose election this episode occurred, was made "professor of mathematics and natural and mechanical philosophy and chemistry," and was the second teacher employed in the institution. These two professors were allowed a salary at first of $250 each, which was soon afterwards increased to $400, with fees which might increase it to $650. The fees of the students were $10 per year, and when the trustees raised this to $15, the opponents of the college, always ready for an occasion to arouse opposition, complained that "poor persons" were thus debarred from the privileges of the institution. It will be seen that it was not an easy task to maintain a "State Seminary" in pioneer Indiana, in those early years of her history.

During the year of the election of the second professor some of the opponents of the seminary sent a protest to the legislature against what they alleged as the extravagant and careless and sectarian management of the institution. A resolution of the house of representatives called out a report on the work and condition of the seminary from Dr. Maxwell, who was at all times watchful of its interests. From that report we learn that 13 students attended the seminary the first year, 15 the second, and 21 the third. Professor Hall's salary of $250 as originally fixed was continued at that sum for 3½ years, during which he "preached to the Presbyterian church of Bloomington, for which service they paid him $150 in articles of trade." At the end of the 3½ years the trustees forbade the preaching and advanced his salary to $400.

It was resolved by the board some time during the second year "that in addition to the Greek and Latin languages heretofore taught in the State Seminary there shall be taught by the said Hall English Grammar, Logic, Rhetoric, Geography, Moral and Natural Philosophy, and Euclid's Elements of Geometry;" but for reasons unassigned the requirements were not complied with, for Dr. Maxwell's report asserts that "during the first three years one teacher only was employed by the trustees, and the Greek and Latin languages alone were taught during that time." Dr. Maxwell was showing, in defence of the institution, that the trustees had exercised due economy in its management. So great was the jealousy of the time against extravagant expenditures!

For the three years from 1824 to 1827 Baynard R. Hall was the sole professor in the Indiana Seminary. No catalogues were printed during this period, and the trustees' records were subsequently destroyed by fire, so the history of the time is limited.

On January 26, 1827, provision was made by the legislature for a board of visitors to the "State Seminary." These "visitors" were to visit the school, inspect its workings, and report to the general assembly "any recommendations they may think proper, of such measure within the competency of the legislature as may tend to sustain, foster, and improve the seminary aforesaid." James B. Ray, Governor of the State, and James Scott, a judge of the supreme court, were members of the board of visitors. The law required of the visiting board that they examine each student in all the branches he had pursued, and after the oral examinations had been gone through with, one of the board was to make a speech to the boys. The law seems to have been observed, and the "visitors" went away pleased with the conduct of the school. The Governor made his report through his annual message; Judge Scott wrote a report for the board of visitors, and Dr. Maxwell followed with a report as the president of the board of trustees. All agreed that the time had come when the Indiana Seminary should be raised to the dignity of a college. By the act of the assembly of January 24, 1828, the "Indiana Seminary" was merged in the "Indiana College."

CHAPTER VI.

THE COLLEGE AND THE UNIVERSITY.

The Indiana College was established January 24, 1828, "for the education of youth in the American, learned, and foreign languages, the useful arts, science and literature," and the institution was placed under the control of a board of fifteen trustees.

No instructor could be required to profess any particular religious opinions, and no student was to be denied admission or refused any particular honors, or degrees, on account of religious opinions, and no sectarian principles were to be taught or inculcated.

A board of visitors was also provided for the new college with powers and duties similar to those of the "visitors" of the seminary.

THE FIRST PRESIDENT.

In 1829, under the new régime, with the election of the first president, came a better era. Dr. Andrew Wylie, the new president, came from Washington, Pennsylvania. He was a man of marked character, an excellent scholar, and a successful teacher. He was an inspiration to his students, who, it seems, held him in great veneration. Many young men from Pennsylvania and Virginia, who had studied under Dr. Wylie in the East followed him to his new field of labor in the "far west." Under his administration the college grew rapidly in numbers, usefulness, and influence, and at his death, November 11, 1851, after twenty-three years of service, he left it a well-established institution. Dr. Wylie's services to Indiana in the capacity of first president of her university, are not easily estimated. As a class-room instructor he disciplined the minds and molded the characters of young men for useful service in the State. By his personal power he attached every student who had received the benefit of his tuition, to the welfare of the university. As a public educator and lecturer, and as a man among the people, he performed an enormous amount of labor in making known to the citizens of the State, and of other States as well, the advantages of higher education. He thus popularized the university and gave it strength in its appeals for legislative support.

A copy of the first catalogue, published in August, 1831, contains the names of the president, two professors, and sixty students, with a "superintendent of a preparatory department." The classes in the college department had their "regular hours of recitation, after which

they were dismissed, but the classes in the preparatory department remained throughout the day, as in common schools, under the eye of the superintendent." The single course of study was the old-time classical course. This embraced Greek and Latin, mathematics and physics, moral and mental philosophy, and the evidences of Christianity. From small beginnings have grown the extensive opportunities of elective courses offered in the university to-day.

It was a favorite idea of President Wylie that the student should study "one thing at a time." He should complete his languages, then his mathematics, then his philosophy. Dr. Wylie's thought was to make broad and well-disciplined minds by requiring a special study of various essential subjects "in their turn." "The studies of the institution," we read in his first report, "are so conducted that each student gives his undivided attention to one principal study till it is completed. This method has been adopted by the president under the full conviction, founded on twenty years' observation and experience, that it possesses many and decided advantages over that, which is pursued in most colleges, of blending together a variety of studies." This was specialization by rotation. It contained an essential idea of the modern plan that, even for discipline's sake, the thorough study of some one subject is better than a general study of many. It reversed the more modern idea by proposing a final equalization in all lines of study.

The "Indiana College" was changed to the "Indiana University" by the act of February 15, 1838. It was at this time enacted by the general assembly of the State of Indiana that "there shall be and hereby is created and established a university adjacent to the town of Bloomington, in the county of Monroe, for the education of youth in the American, learned, and foreign languages, the useful arts, sciences (including law and medicine), and literature, to be known by the name and style of the Indiana University." The act provided for a board of 21 trustees. It was made the duty of this board of trustees "to elect, from time to time, as the interests of the institution may require, a president of said university, and such professors, tutors, instructors, and other officers of the same as they may judge necessary for the interests thereof, and shall determine the duties, salaries, emoluments, responsibilities, tenures of their several offices, and designate the course of instruction in said university." Among the members of the first board of trustees of the newly created university were David Wallace, Governor William Hendricks, Jesse L. Holman, Robert Dale Owen, and Richard W. Thompson. To the university, as to the "Indiana College," were appropriated all the funds arising from the sale of lands in the Monroe and Gibson reservations. All the power and authority of the trustees of the college over "the funds, estate, property, rights, and demands thereof, were to be transferred to the trustees of the new university created by this act, and the said trustees and their successors in office shall have, hold, possess, and exercise all the powers and

authority over the said institution." This act was amended in 1841, and the number of trustees was reduced to nine; and any trustee who was absent from two consecutive meetings without excuse forfeited his seat as a member of the board. The pay of the members was fixed at the same per diem and mileage as that allowed by law to the members of the general assembly and was to be paid out of the university funds.

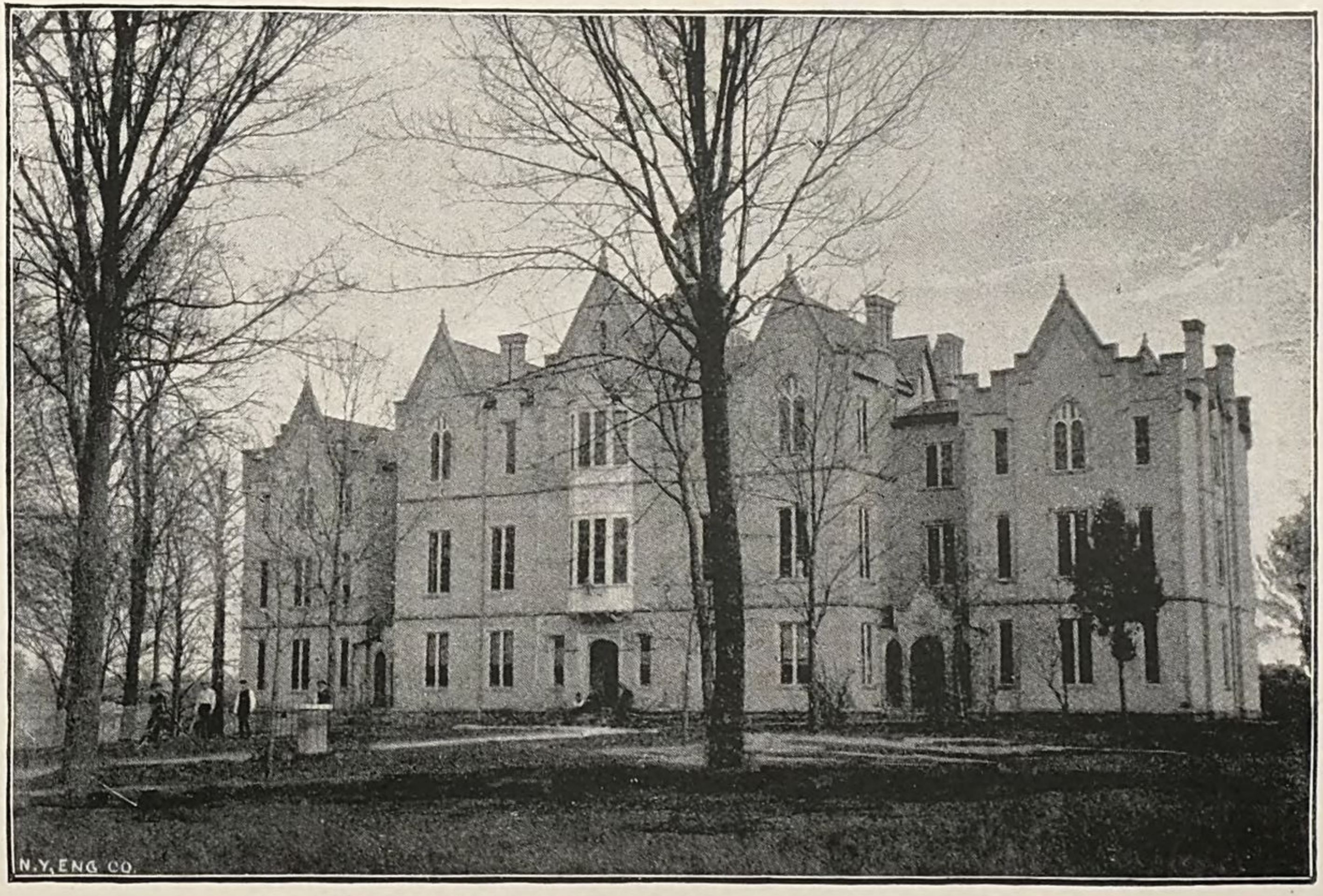
There are traces, but no records, of a law department in the early years of the college. Hon. Miles C. Eggleston was an early law professor. But in 1840 this department was fully and legally organized, and a successful law school was carried on until 1877. It was abolished largely because of opposition in the State to the maintenance of purely professional schools—and especially to the education of lawyers—at public expense. In its day this school contained some of the ablest lawyers of the State among its faculty, and many of the prominent men of the Indiana bar received here their instruction in law.

The provision in the law of 1838 for a school of medicine as a part of the university was never realized. The Indiana Medical College at Indianapolis was, at a meeting of the board of trustees in 1871, made the medical department of Indiana university. This school was nominally under the control of the university, and was reported in the annual catalogues as a part of the working force of the university from 1872 to 1876. But the connection was one of name only.

After the adoption in 1851 of the new Constitution, which omitted mention of the university, the legislature, by act of June 17, 1852, recognized the "college established by the act of 1828" as the University of the State; and the Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Judges of the Supreme Court, Speaker of the House of Representatives, and Superintendent of Public Instruction were made, *ex officio*, a board of visitors to the institution. By this law some member of the faculty whom the faculty may select is required to lecture each year on the purposes and work of the university in at least ten different counties of the State. In 1855 the board of trustees was made to consist of eight members, no two of whom could be from the same county, except from Monroe, where the university is located, which county was allowed two members.

After the death of Dr. Wylie in 1851, Rev. Alfred Ryors, D. D., was elected to the presidency. He occupied the position for but one year. He was succeeded by Rev. Wm. M. Dailey, D. D., who was president from 1853 to 1858. Dr. Lathrop, who had been chancellor of the University of Wisconsin, and was subsequently elected to the presidency of the University of Missouri, was at the head of the institution from 1858 to 1860. From that date until 1875 Rev. Cyrus Nutt, D. D., LL. D, was president, and Rev. Lemuel Moss, D. D., from 1875 to 1885.

In all these early years the university received practically no support from the treasury of the State. Its reliance was upon land endowment. These lands had been sold early and at a sacrifice, and no further endowment or increase of income could be hoped for from this source.



No. 1.—INDIANA UNIVERSITY: CHAPEL AND PREPARATORY SCHOOL; SOCIETY HALLS.

The year 1867 marks an advance step in the institution's financial history. By the act of March 8 of that year it was asserted, "Whereas the endowment fund of the university is no longer sufficient to meet the growing wants of education and make said university efficient and useful, therefore" there was appropriated $8,000 annually out of the State treasury. This sum was soon found insufficient, and it was necessary to appropriate $8,000 more to meet the debt incurred by the trustees in keeping the several departments in operation. The legislature by act of February 19, 1873, after declaring that "the income of the endowment fund of the State University, together with the amount appropriated by the act of 1867, has become wholly inadequate to meet the growing wants of public education, and is not sufficient to provide for the education of all who are seeking instruction within her walls, and to accomplish her true mission as the head of our present great system of common schools, where education shall be free to all," enacted that an annual appropriation of $15,000 be made to the university, to be paid from September 30, 1872. The stated annual appropriation has since been increased to $23,000.

PERMANENT ENDOWMENT.

The most notable advance in the legal history of the university, and the one which will do more than any other to accomplish the fulfillment of the ideas of the founders of the institution, is found in the "Act to provide a fund for the permanent endowment of Indiana University," approved March 8, 1883. By this act, the passage of which was secured largely by the efforts of the alumni, it was provided that "there shall be assessed and collected, as State revenues are assessed and collected, in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-three, and in each of the succeeding twelve years, the sum of one-half of one cent on each one hundred dollars of taxable property in this State, which money, when collected and paid into the State treasury in each of the years named in this act, shall be placed to the credit of a fund to be known as the Permanent Endowment Fund of the Indiana University." It is estimated that this fund will in the twelve years amount to more than $700,000, which, with the present endowment from sales of land and other sources, will give a permanent fund for the university of nearly a million. The annual appropriation to the current expenses of the university from the treasury of the State is now $23,000, and by special act of appropriation in March, 1885, $43,000 were given, with which to improve the grounds and buildings of the university, to replace the library and museum, and to supply the chemical, philosophical, and natural science departments with apparatus and appliances. The law declared this necessary by reason of the "total destruction of one of the buildings with its contents in July, 1883, to replace which the county of Monroe had with great liberality contributed the sum of $50,000, with which sum the board of trustees had purchased a new site for the college campus, and erected two new buildings thereon for the use of the university."

In 1854, and again in 1883, the university suffered disaster by fire. In the first fire it lost a valuable and only building and all of its library; in the second there were destroyed a new college building, all of the university library, the physical and chemical apparatus, and a valuable museum containing the "Owen Cabinet." This cabinet was the largest geological collection in the West. From these disasters the university, on account of liberal public provisions, has more than recovered. Though some of its losses can not be replaced, it has a far better practical equipment to-day than it has ever had before in its history.

It will be seen that during the first generation of its history the Indiana University endured a continuous struggle. It had to contend against the reluctance of the State to give to it a vigorous and liberal financial support; its lands were unfortunately, or unwisely, managed, and by their too early sale it never realized from its land endowment an income of more than $8,000; it was troubled by uncertainty and confusion and subsequent litigation concerning this endowment; it was hampered (in the early history of the State) by the antagonisms of religious sects, whose adverse influence was seen sometimes in the management of the institution, but more often in unkind and uncalled-for opposition to its management and interests; it suffered two disasters by fire; it had to resist an unreasonable, but common, feeling of suspicion, among many of the masses, toward higher education by the State;—all these causes, with some minor ones, have operated to make the growth of the university slow and difficult.

Yet under its first president, during its first quarter of a century, it continued to do respectable and thorough college work. Under the advancing and more liberal policy of the last twenty years on the part of the State toward her institutions of higher learning, the institution, from being only a training school in the classics and mathematics, is rapidly pushing into the work of the university proper, and offers growing opportunities for advanced and original investigation.

To advance in the direction of the university idea has been the policy and purpose of the present administration. Larger freedom of study, under qualified teachers, with a university environment, suggests the controlling idea on which the university is moving. After the resignation of Dr. Moss in November, 1884, David Starr Jordan was promoted from the professorship of zoölogy to the presidency of the university. The present advance in the evolution of the university has been under his direction. Dr. Jordan was graduated from Cornell University in 1872. He was a teacher in the Indianapolis High School in 1874–75. He was professor of natural science in Lombard University, Illinois, in 1872–73; in Butler University, Indiana, from 1875 to 1879. In the latter year he was called to the chair of zoölogy in Indiana University, since which time he has been in the service of this institution. President Jordan's special work has been in the field of natural science. He is best known to the scientific world by his papers on fishes, which

No. 6.—INDIANA UNIVERSITY: BIOLOGICAL LABORATORY.

comprise over 250 titles, and 15,000 printed pages, mainly in Government reports and proceedings of scientific societies. With the assistance of Prof. C. H. Gilbert, who now holds the chair of zoölogy, he has described within the last thirteen years, over 250 species of fishes new to science, most of which work has been done in connection with the Smithsonian Institution and the United States Fish Commission. He has been a frequent contributor to scientific journals, and is the author of "Science Sketches," and "A Manual of the Vertebrates of the Eastern United States." His labor and ability have contributed much to the growth of the university.

"The highest function of the real university," says President Jordan, "is that of instruction by investigation. The essential quality of the university is the presence in its faculty of men qualified to do university work. It matters not how many or how few the subjects taught, or what may be the material equipment of the teacher, the school in which study and investigation go hand in hand is in its degree a university. Men of common-place, or second-hand, scholarship are of necessity men of low ideals, however carefully that fact may be disguised, and such men can have no part in university development."

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION AND COURSES OF STUDY.

There are now organized and equipped fifteen departments, each offering a three or four years' course to be pursued as a specialty, each of the fifteen courses leading to the degree of A. B. The courses offered are:

1. The Course in Greek.
2. The Course in Latin.
3. The Course in Romance Languages.
4. The Course in Germanic Languages.
5. The Course in English.
6. The Course in History.
7. The Course in Social Science.
8. The Course in Philosophy.
9. The Course in Pedagogics.
10. The Course in Mathematics.
11. The Course in Physics.
12. The Course in Chemistry.
13. The Course in Geology.
14. The Course in Zoölogy.
15. The Course in Botany.

These courses are the same in extent and value. Each requires the same preparation for admission, and each requires four years for completion, and that the student shall follow some special line for three or four years. It is intended that every graduate of the university shall have a thorough drill in some department, while breadth of culture is encouraged by means of certain general studies required of all students, and by a wide range of elective studies during the Junior and Senior years.

The following principles have been recognized in the present arrangement of the courses of study:

(1) No two minds are alike, and different minds require different discipline; hence, after the completion of certain studies deemed essential to all culture, great freedom in the choice of studies should be granted.

(2) The thorough study of any subject is conducive to mental discipline; hence all departments should be placed on the same footing.

(3) The beginnings of any study are easy compared with the difficulties the student meets after going beyond the mere elements of his subject; hence a better mental training can be obtained from the study of one subject for several years than from the study of a number of subjects for a short period each.

Every candidate for the degree of A. B. must complete the following work:

General:

English, one year, daily.

Mathematics, one year, daily.

Physical science (zoölogy, geology, chemistry, botany, physics or astronomy) three terms (two of which must be spent in laboratory), daily.

English prose composition two terms, daily.

Special:

Every student must select for a specialty a subject in which a four-years' course is offered.

Collateral:

The head of each department may lay out, in connection with his course, work in related subjects,—such required collateral work not to exceed six terms of daily recitations, and to be especially arranged for each student.

Elective:

The remainder of his work the student may elect from any departments in the university.

Freshmen may first take the required general studies without selecting a specialty. The order in which the required general and collateral studies are to be taken may vary with the conditions of each case; the student is to be guided in this matter by the advice of the president, and, after choosing a specialty, by that of the professor under whom he desires to work. Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors must report to the professor in charge of the department in which they have chosen their specialty within a week after entering the university; they may change their specialty at the end of a term with the consent of the professors in the two departments concerned, but no changes as to special, collateral, or elective studies will be permitted after the beginning of a term, and no student will be graduated who has not finished all the work required for graduation in some one department, no matter how much work he may have done in other departments.

No. 4.—INDIANA UNIVERSITY: CHEMICAL LABORATORY "A."

It will be noticed that the university is moving on the line of the elective principle. Of this advance President Jordan has spoken in a late address on "The Evolution of the College Curriculum." His words will give the best expression of the present tendencies of the university of Indiana. He says:

"From the second to the third stage in its history the curriculum of the American college is now passing. This is marked by the advent of the elective system. It is impossible to study everything, or even many things, in four years. Thoroughness of any sort is incompatible with the so-called breadth of culture characteristic of the patchwork era. True breadth of culture comes from breadth of life, and four years in college can not give it. The elective system when carried out in its entirety involves the following elements: (1) A substantial and thorough course preparatory to the college course—this course including much that is now taught in the Freshmen and Sophomore years in most of our western colleges; (2) the placing of all subjects taught in the college course on an equality so far as the degrees are concerned. * * *

"The chief need of a college organization is to bring great teachers together, that their combined influence may effect results which can not be reached in isolation. In other words, the use of a college is to produce a college atmosphere, such an atmosphere as formed itself around Arnold at Rugby, around Döllinger at Munich, around Werner at Freiberg, around Agassiz at Cambridge, around Mark Hopkins at Williamstown, around all great teachers everywhere. * * * The various so-called colleges and universities in America will gradually differentiate into universities and preparatory schools, and the ultimate line of division will be one of money as well as one of management. To do university work requires better trained professors and many more of them than to teach the elements of Latin, Greek, and mathematics. Schools, ill-endowed, or not endowed at all, can not attempt this. Those who can do it will do it, and the success of Johns Hopkins University shows how this can be done. The ideas of *Lehrfreiheit* and *Lernfreiheit*—freedom of teaching and freedom of study—on which the German university is based, will become a central feature of the American college system."

The university maintains no preparatory school. Its entrance requirements coincide with the requirements for graduation in the officially recognized or "commissioned" high schools of the State. Thus the public schools of Indiana form, as contemplated in the first Constitution, a cont nuous gradation from the lowest to the highest.

In his address on Higher Education, Dr. Jordan says:

"Buildings, departments, museums, courses, libraries, catalogues, names, numbers, rules, and regulations do not make a university. It is the men who teach. Go where the masters are, in whatever department you wish to study. Far more important than the question of what you shall study is the question of who shall be your teachers. The

teacher should be a source of inspiration, leading the student in his department to the farthest limit of what is already known, inciting him to make excursions to the greater realm of the unknown.

"Ezra Cornell said, 'I will found an institution in which any person can find instruction in any subject.' A great idea, and in the institution he founded, this idea has been nobly carried out. Such a school does not yet exist among us, but it will come, and when it comes it will work a revolution in college education. I do not know where it may be or when, but in my dreams day and night I can see it, the college of the masters, the college of the twentieth century, standing as the rightful head of the school system of Indiana."

ORGANIZATION (1890).

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

James D. Maxwell, Bloomington; Julius W. Youche, Crown Point; terms expire 1889. James L. Mitchell, Indianapolis; Isaac Jenkinson, Richmond; Robert S. Robertson, Fort Wayne; terms expire 1890. Isaac P. Leyden, New Albany; Robert W. Miers, Bloomington; Robert D. Richardson, Evansville; terms expire 1891.

THE FACULTY.

David Starr Jordan, M. D., PH. D., LL. D., *President, and Professor of Systematic Zoölogy.*

Theophilus Adam Wylie, D. D., LL. D., *Professor Emeritus of Physics.*

Daniel Kirkwood, A. M., LL. D., *Professor Emeritus of Astronomy.*

Amzi Atwater, A. M., *Professor of the Latin Language and Literature.*

Thomas Charlton Van Nüys, M. D., *Professor of Chemistry.*

Orrin Benner Clark, A. M., *Professor of the English Language and Literature, and Secretary of the Faculty.*

Horace Addison Hoffman, A. M., *Professor of the Greek Language and Literature.*

John Casper Branner, PH. D., *Professor of Geology.*

Richard Gause Boone, PH. D., *Professor of Pedagogics.*

Joseph Swain, M. S., *Professor of Applied Mathematics and Astronomy.*

Gustaf Karsten, PH. D., *Professor of Germanic Languages.*

William Lowe Bryan, A. M., *Professor of Philosophy.*

Joseph P. Naylor, M. S., *Professor of Physics.*

Douglas Houghton Campbell, PH. D., *Professor of Botany.*

Charles Henry Gilbert, PH. D., *Professor of Zoölogy.*

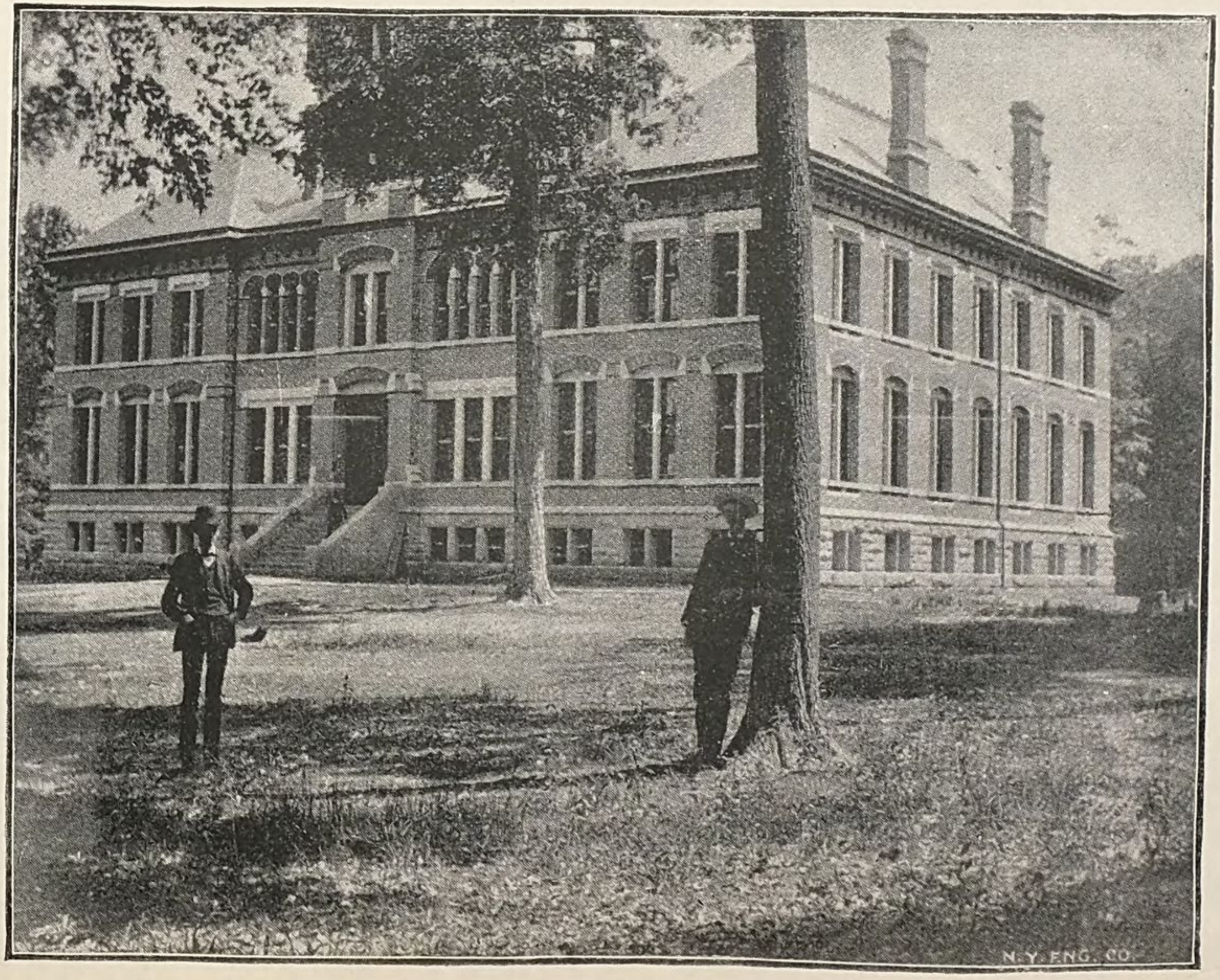
Jeremiah Whipple Jenks, PH.D., *Professor of Social Science and Economics.*

Earl Barnes, A. B., *Professor of History.*

David Demaree Banta, LL. B., LL. D., *Dean of the Department of Law.*

George William Saunderson, A. M., LL. B., *Professor of Rhetoric and Oratory.*

Ernest Wilson Huffcut, B. S., LL. B., *Professor of Law.*



No. 2.—INDIANA UNIVERSITY: WYLIE HALL LIBRARY; CHEMICAL AND PHYSICAL LABORATORIES.

John Ernst Matzke, PH. D., *Professor of Romance Languages.*
Rufus L. Green, B. S., *Professor of Pure Mathematics.*
James Albert Woodburn, PH. D., *Professor of American History.*
William Wesley Spangler, B. L., A. M., *Librarian, Registrar, and Secretary of Board of Trustees.*
Carl Osthaus, A. M., *Associate Professor of German.*
James Kirkwood Beck, A. M., *Associate Professor of Latin.*
Edward Howard Griggs, A. M., *Instructor in English.*
Robert Edward Lyons, A. M., *Instructor in Chemistry.*
Arthur Lee Foley, A. B., *Instructor in Physics.*
Schuyler Colfax Davison, A. B., *Instructor in Mathematics.*

GENERAL INFORMATION.

Location.—Bloomington, the seat of the Indiana University, is situated in Monroe County, on the Louisville, New Albany and Chicago Railway, in a picturesque and healthful region. The town has a population of about 5,000.

Buildings.—The buildings occupied by the university are five in number. One of these, formerly the main building of the university, contains the largest university assembly room, used for public exercises and for the literary societies. This building is situated on the old campus, at the south end of the town, facing the termination of College avenue. It is of brick, finished with stone, three stories in height, 145 feet front, 60 feet deep.

Near the main building stood the science hall, containing the museum, libraries, laboratories, and the recitation rooms for the sciences and the modern languages. This building was destroyed by fire on the night of July 12, 1883, with nearly all its contents. After the fire, a gift of $50,000 was made to the university by the county of Monroe. With this fund, and the insurance money obtained on the burned building, the trustees of the university immediately purchased the property known as "Dunn's Woods," adjoining the city on the east, and erected on it three additional buildings, in which the work of the university is now carried on. The new campus, the university park, contains 20 acres of elevated ground, covered with a heavy growth of maple and beech timber. The commanding position of the land, and the beauty of the natural forest which adorns it, render this one of the most attractive college sites in the country.

Wylie Hall, the largest of the new buildings, is 113 feet long by 84 deep. This is devoted to the departments of mathematics, chemistry and physics.

Owen Hall is 71 feet by 65. This is devoted to the museum, lecture-rooms, and laboratories in geology, zoölogy, and botany.

These two buildings are of brick, relieved by native limestone trimmings, colored bands, and terra cotta work, are slate roofed, have concrete floors, supported by iron girders, are well lighted, and are thor-

oughly fireproof. Each is two stories high, with ample stone basements, is lighted with gasoline, heated by steam, and provided with everything necessary for the purposes for which it was built. In each, the internal arrangements were planned by the professors in charge of the departments specially concerned.

Maxwell Hall, a frame building, has been erected for the present accommodation of some of the literary departments, and contains the chapel for the daily religious exercises.

The new library building, recently finished, is of white limestone, 140 by 70 feet. The central half of the building is occupied by books and is one story high. There will be two floors in each of the two wings, which will afford rooms for various library and recitation purposes. The law library and lecture rooms will be on the upper floor of one of these wings, and rooms of the historical and political science departments on the upper floor of the other. A large reading room and the offices of the librarian adjoin the main library room on the first floor. The lower rooms in the east wing are used by the departments of English and pedagogics.

Expenses of the student.—Tuition is free in all the departments of the university. The contingent and library fees amount to $18 per year.

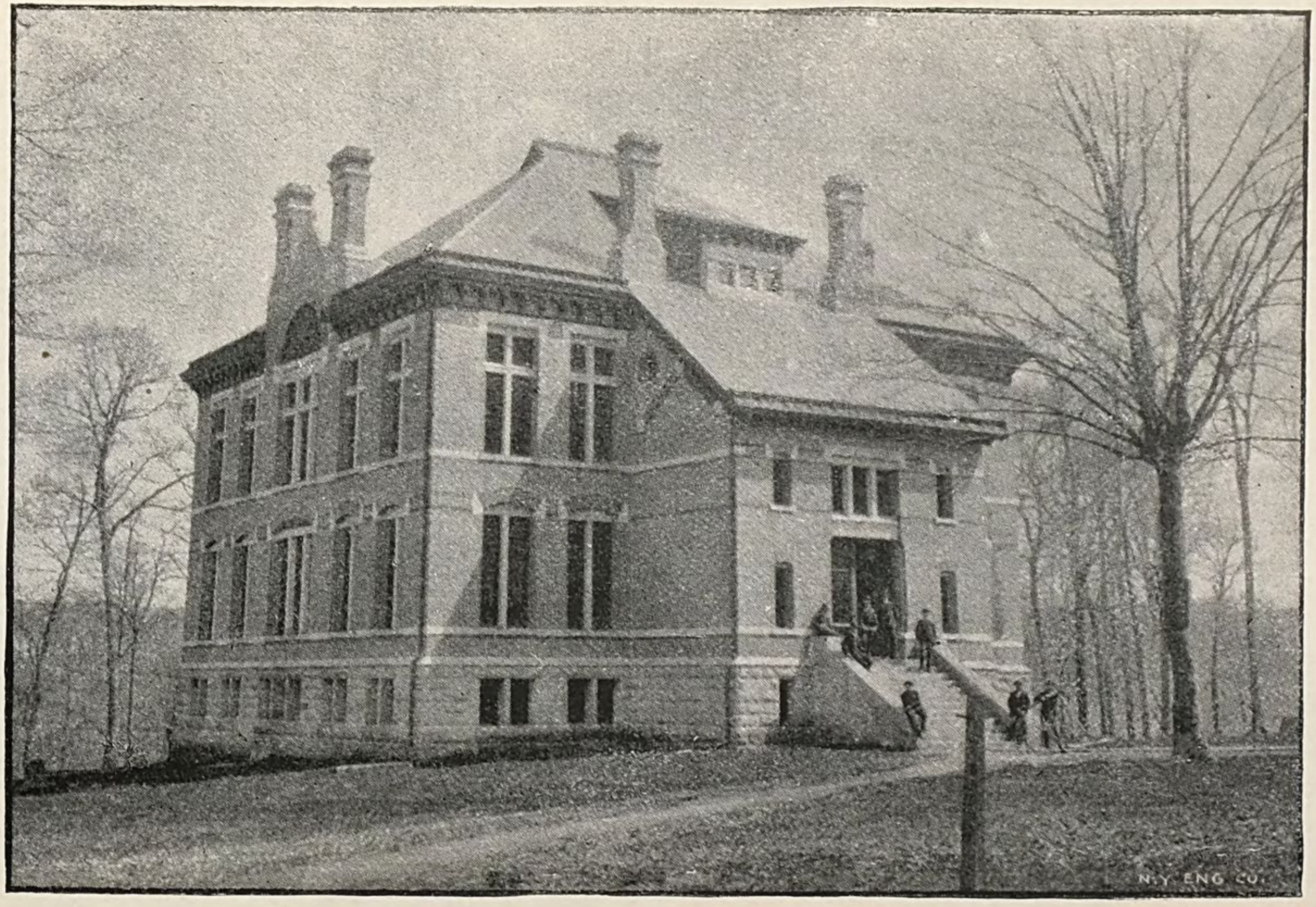
No dormitory is connected with the university. Bloomington is surrounded by a farming community, hence the cost of living is much lower than in the larger towns of the State, and is probably lower than in any other town in the Northwest in which an institution of similar character is located. Board and lodging in private families cost from $3 to $3.50 per week. Board in clubs is furnished at $2 per week, and room rent alone is from 50 cents to $1. The necessary expenses of the student, exclusive of clothing and railway fares, will range from $160 to $200 per year.

Financial condition of the university.—The annual revenues of the university for 1889–'90 were as follows:

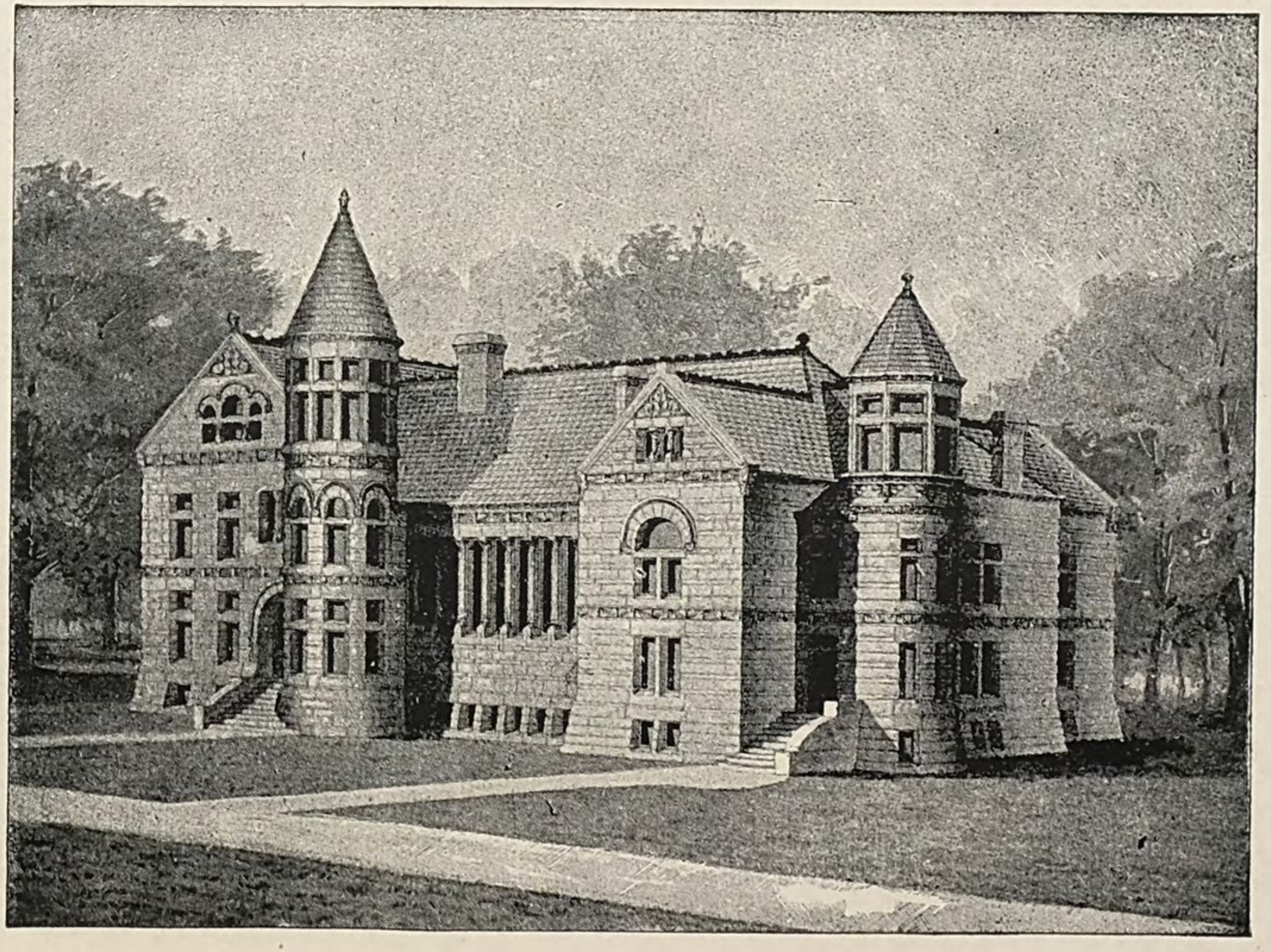
Balance on hand November 1, 1888	$1,578.71
Stated annual appropriation provided by statute	23,000.00
Interest on endowment fund accumulated from sale of lands given by the United States	7,200.00
Fees for library and contingent expenses	5,550.50
Interest on State bonds, issued on account of special university tax	15,741.00
Interest on unpaid purchase money due on lands	224.59
Diplomas	205.00
Sundries and unexpended balances	600.00
Total	54,099.80

THE LIBRARY.

The 15,000 volumes in the general collection, selected to meet the special needs of the various departments of college study, are on open shelves, of easy access, so that the utmost freedom of reference and use is afforded. The arrangement of the books on the shelves is by sub-



No. 3.—INDIANA UNIVERSITY: OWEN HALL; MUSEUM AND BIOLOGICAL LABORATORIES.



INDIANA UNIVERSITY: NEW LIBRARY BUILDING.

jects, according to the "Dewey Decimal System of Classification," in which the library is divided into 10 *classes*, numbered (1) Philosophy, (2) Religion, (3) Sociology, (4) Philology, (5) Natural Science, (6) Useful Arts, (7) Fine Arts, (8) Literature, (9) History, (10) General works. Each of these ten classes is subdivided into ten *divisions* of the main subject, and numbered with the digits 0–9, and each of these divisions again into ten *sections*, and so on as far as the subject-matter in each department requires. For example, 942 is the second *section* (England) of the fourth *division* (Modern Europe) of the ninth *class* or special library (History). All the histories of the whole or any part of England, for whatever period of time, are marked with this number, 942, and for more minute reference decimal subdivisions are affixed. Thus, 942.03 is a history of England under the Plantagenets; 942.05, under the Tudors; 942.09, under Queen Victoria; 942.1, a history of London; and 942.9, of Wales. Combining the decimals for time and place, 942.19 is the history of London during the present reign. So in the whole library each book bears the number determined by its subject, as fixed in the printed classification scheme, and the books are arranged on the shelves in the simple arithmetical order of these class numbers, which brings every book in its logical place with reference to related subjects—and keeps it there, whatever the growth of the library may be. An alphabetical index of authors, titles, and subjects, referring in detail to each volume thus numbered, is prepared on cards, giving the class-number, book-number, volume-number, and page-numbers, and making in fact a single encyclopædic dictionary of the whole collection of books and pamphlets.

Accessions amounting to about 2,000 volumes are annually made by purchase.

THE MUSEUM.

The museum of the university is in Owen Hall. The principal room occupies the second floor of the building, and is devoted to the display collection, while most of the alcoholic collections are in special rooms of the basement. The policy of the museum is not the collection of heterogeneous material, but (1) to give by means of selected specimens and explanatory diagrams a synopsis of the principal groups of the animal and vegetable kingdoms, and outlines of the more important geological groups and phenomena; (2) to illustrate, as completely as possible, the natural history of the State of Indiana; (3) to furnish material necessary for the prosecution of original investigations on the part of professors and students.

The collections now contain about 3,000 minerals and 5,000 fossils. Among them is the finest specimen in existence of *Megalonyx jeffersoni*. There are also several hundred specimens from the cretaceous strata of South America, deposited by Professor Branner.

The zoölogical collections consist of about 1,900 mounted specimens and skins of mammals and birds, and a considerable number of nests

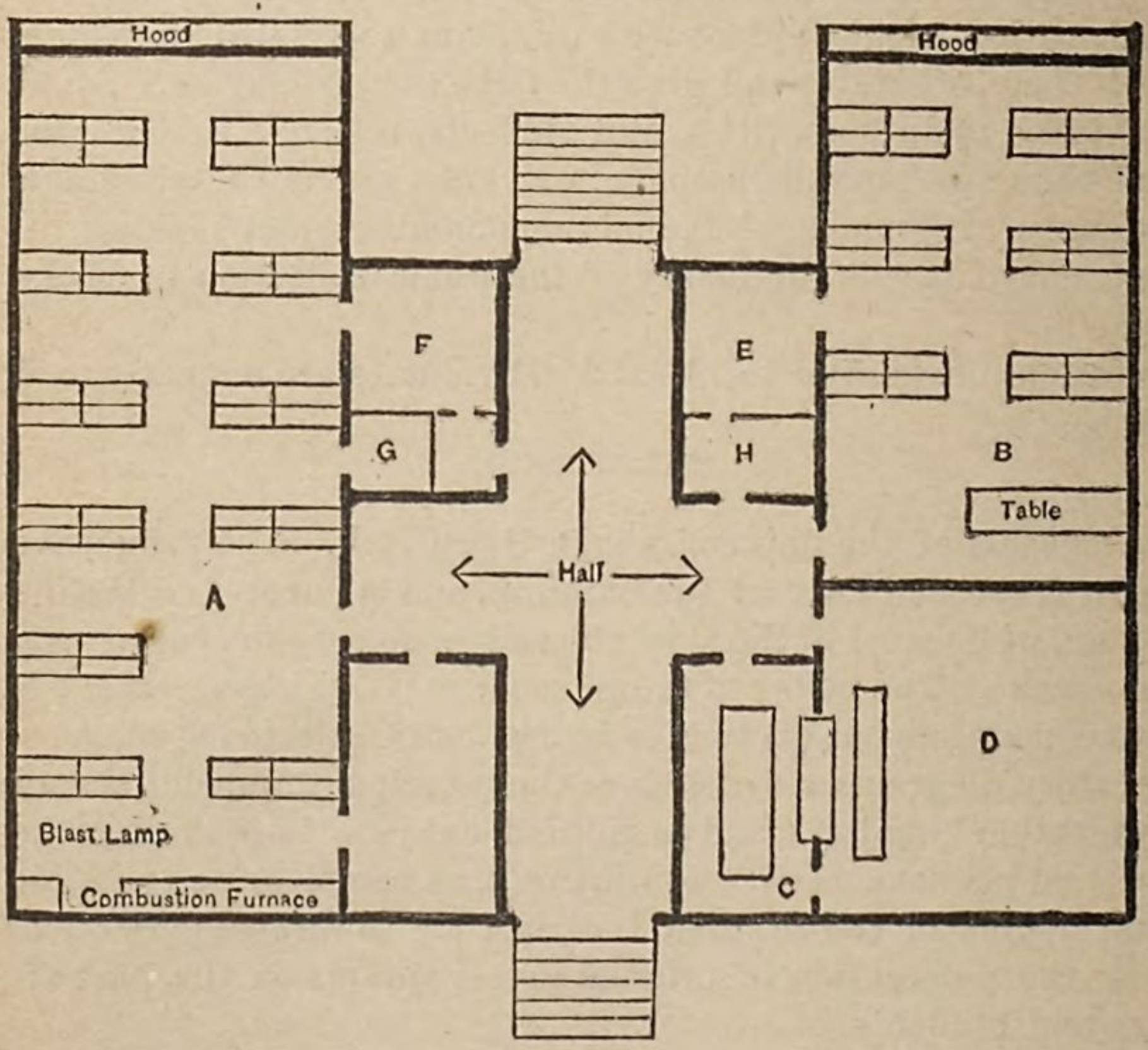
and eggs. The fishes number some 50,000 specimens, representing about 3,000 species, representing fairly well the fish fauna of North America and Europe. There are some 6,000 specimens of insects, and about 2,000 of marine invertebrates, many of the latter in alcohol.

LABORATORIES.

The geological laboratory.—The geological laboratory is provided with geological maps and diagrams, and with the appliances required in the construction of topographical and geological maps, models, sections, diagrams, etc. In the lecture-room are large photographs, illustrating geological subjects, and a copy of Hitchcock's large geological wall map of the United States.

The zoölogical laboratory.—The zoölogical laboratory is a large, well lighted room, fitted with tables, microscopes, microtomes, reagents, and other apparatus for the study of animals. There is also a well equipped laboratory in the department of botany.

THE CHEMICAL LABORATORY.



A—Laboratory for qualitative analysis.
B—Laboratory for quantitative analysis.
C—Laboratory for special work.
D—Lecture room.
E—Balance room.
F—Distilling room.
G—Store room.
H—Store room.

For the department of chemistry there are two general laboratories and a "preparation room" or special laboratory. In the two labora-

No. 5.—INDIANA UNIVERSITY: PHYSICAL LABORATORY.

tories (A and B of the diagram) there are stands, each of which affords room for four students, and there being eleven stands in the laboratory for qualitative analysis, and six in the laboratory for quantitative analysis, there is room for sixty-eight students. The laboratory A is 80 by 30 feet, and the laboratory B is 48 by 30 feet. The stands are 12 by 4½ feet, hence each student has 6 feet of space, and as the aisles are 4 to 10 feet there is ample room, even when every place is occupied. The laboratories are well ventilated, as vapor and gases escape through flues in the hoods. Adjoining the laboratory for qualitative analysis is the room F, in which reagents and the apparatus for distilling water are kept. In the small room, G, are supplies for the stands. In the room, E, connected with the laboratory for quantitative analysis, are five balances of precision, and in the adjoining room, H, is the apparatus employed in quantitative work. The laboratory, C, for special work is connected with the lecture room, D. Between these rooms is a hood, as shown by the diagram. The lecture room has seating capacity for seventy-five students. Besides the rooms shown by the diagram there are in the basement two store rooms, a dark room for special work, and a room containing the assay and fusing furnaces. The laboratories as now furnished afford every means to facilitate work without loss of time, as nearly every reagent and piece of apparatus are supplied each student. In qualitative work the student has at his place nearly thirty reagents, and in his cupboards and drawers are flasks, beakers, tongs, evaporating dishes, test tubes, filter and retort stands, filter and test papers, etc. Each place is supplied with gas and air under pressure, so the quality of the flame may be changed as desired. At the end of each stand is a water supply and a basin connected with a drain pipe. In the laboratories each student works independently, as there are no classes.

Facilities are now afforded for laboratory practice in physiological chemistry, embracing the study of the constituents of muscular tissue, brain, bile, fæces, urine, etc. For this purpose Geissler's air pump, with receivers for evaporating in vacuum, Laurent's polariscope, for estimating sugar, peptone, and hemialbuminose, and a spectroscope for studying the spectra of hæmoglobin and its derivatives, have lately been imported.

THE PHYSICAL LABORATORY.

The physical laboratory is being rapidly supplied with the best instruments that can be obtained for the presentation of a course in modern experimental physics. Besides the usual apparatus for the illustration of the elementary principles of physics, as presented in the lectures, the laboratory is being provided with the best standards and instruments for precise measurements. These are intended for the use of students in the laboratory. By working with them, the student may not only quantitatively verify physical laws and truths, but, what

is of far greater value, may catch the spirit and methods of scientific investigation.

A partial list of apparatus may show some of the advantages the Indiana University is already able to offer. For the fundamental unit of time, there are provided a good clock with chronograph, a stop-watch, and a Verdin chronograph reading to $\frac{1}{1000}$ of a second, with control fork by Koenig, of Paris. For length, a Société Genèvoise standard meter with reading microscope for subdivisions, Brown & Sharp scale and micrometre, spherometre reading to $\frac{1}{1000}$ millimetre, cathetometre, optical lever, and other standards of less accuracy are provided. Two fine balances, accurate to $\frac{1}{10}$ milligram, with weights, are provided for measurements of mass.

A Borda pendulum, thermometers, barometers, thermopile, Rowland grating, spectrometre, prisms, specific-gravity apparatus, vapor-density apparatus, sonometre, sirens, polariscope, reading telescopes and scales, and other instruments are provided for general work in measurements of various kinds. For magnetic and electrical measurements, the laboratory is well provided so far as light current work is concerned. A magnetometre, a standard tangent galvanometre, by Hartman & Brown, Carpentier's ammetre, low resistance astatic galvanometre for thermo-electric work, Elliott's high resistance astatic galvanometre with lamp and scale, a low resistance mirror galvanometre, tangent galvanometre with three coils of different resistance, Thomson's quadrant electrometre, resistance boxes, standard ohm, Wheatstone's bridge, box-form, by Elliott, divided metre bridge, one-third micro-farad, Key's induction coils, batteries of various forms, standard cells, and other instruments are provided for work in this line.

PSYCHOLOGICAL LABORATORY.

This laboratory is provided with a number of superior instruments. The Hipp chronoscope with full apparatus reading to $\frac{1}{1000}$ of a second, the Verdin chronograph with central fork of the same accuracy, apparatus for applying graded stimuli of various sorts. Physiological psychology is pursued experimentally for verification of past and current results and in original investigation.

Statistics of the State Universities of the Northwest in 1888.*

[Compiled from official sources.]

State universities.	Population of State, 1880.	Taxable property of State in 1880.	Value of buildings and grounds.	Value of library, museum, and laboratory.	Actual income from all sources.	Special appropriation last session of legislature.	Number of full professors, collegiate department.
Ann Arbor, Mich	1,636,937	$654,580,850	$600,000	$450,000	$222,750	$54,450	24
Madison, Wis	1,315,497	425,680,143	750,000	125,000	145,000	198,000	33
Minneapolis, Minn	780,773	258,055,543	550,000	100,000	76,000	40,000	19
Bloomington, Ind	1,978,301	728,944,231	120,000	25,000	40,343	.....	16
Champaign, Ill	3,077,871	786,616,394	460,000	85,000	60,000	25,000	18
Columbus, Ohio	3,198,062	1,546,470,544	800,000	60,000	74,408	25,335	16
Iowa City, Iowa	1,624,615	418,482,472	†125,000	†30,000	75,000	†50,000	13
Columbia, Mo	2,168,380	558,361,443	400,000	61,000	50,000	47,100	20
Lawrence, Kans	996,096	160,901,688	350,000	175,000	77,605	60,000	16
Lincoln, Nebr	452,402	90,499,618	500,000	50,000	80,000	.....	11
Vermillion, Dak	135,177	11,162,163	110,000	5,000	16,000	35,000	9
Boulder, Colo	194,327	57,784,243	70,000	12,000	32,675	.....	8
Knoxville, Tenn	1,542,359	213,117,680	250,000	6,000	33,000	.....	9
Position of Indiana in each respect	Fourth.	Third.	Eleventh.	Tenth.	Tenth.	.....	Seventh.

*Since this table was prepared there has been great growth in the institutions mentioned. The value of the buildings and grounds of Indiana University has been increased to $200,000, its income to $60,000, students 390, full professors 24.

†Estimated.

Statistics of the Universities of the Northwest in 1888—Continued

State universities	Average salaries (approximate).	Number of students in college classes, 1888.	Are professional schools maintained?	Preparatory?	Is industrial college united with State university?	Number of people in State (1880) for each one in college classes of State university. (1888.)	Number of dollars (1880) of property for each dollar of university income (1888).
Ann Arbor, Mich	$2,400	712	Yes.	No..	Separate..	2,300	$2,900
Madison, Wis	2,100	*400	Yes.	No..	United....	3,290	2,944
Minneapolis, Minn	2,400	*439	Yes	No..	United....	†1,750	†3,300
Bloomington, Ind	1,575	275	No..	Yes.	Separate..	7,200	18,200
Champaign, Ill	1,900	*274	No..	Yes.	United....	12,000	13,100
Columbus, Ohio	2,250	*236	Yes.	No..	United....	13,300	20,100
Iowa City, Iowa	1,800	255	Yes	No..	Separate..	†6,900	†5,590
Columbia, Mo	2,200	‡*573	Yes.	Yes.	United....	7,200	11,100
Lawrence, Kans	1,900	182	Yes.	Yes.	Separate..	†5,500	†2,200
Lincoln, Nebr	2,000	*186	No..	Yes.	United....	†2,800	†1,100
Vermillion, Dak	1,200	75	No..	Yes.	Separate..	†1,900	†700
Boulder, Colo	1,800	53	Yes.	Yes.	Separate..	4,000	1,700
Knoxville, Tenn	1,800	*224	Yes.	No..	United....	7,200	7,000
Position of Indiana in each respect	Twelfth.	Fourth.	.....	.....	.....	Eighth.	Twelfth.

*Includes students in mechanic arts and agriculture.

†These figures have little value on account of the rapid growth in population and wealth since 1880.

‡Includes preparatory school.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

It would be regarded as an inexcusable omission, in even a brief sketch of Indiana University, were some notice not given to personal mention of some of the distinguished teachers whose names were long identified with the usefulness and growth of the university, and to whose services the State is very greatly indebted. The history of education in any State is the history of the thought and work of her great educators. Indiana has had in her university a number of gifted teachers, who have stamped their thought and influence on the life of the State by the way in which they have shaped and directed the lives of men of eminence and influence in various walks and professions. The older alumni of Indiana University will recall a group of Christian scholars who gave reputation and dignity to the university a generation ago, whose names will always be regarded by the students who knew them as part of the glories of the past.

We have already made mention of the first president, *Dr. Andrew Wylie.* Dr. Wylie was born in Fayette County, Pa., April 12, 1789. He was of Scotch-Irish parentage, his father having come from County Antrim, Ireland. His early education was such as he received at the common school. He graduated with the honors of his class at Jefferson College, Cannonsburgh, Pa., and in his twenty-third year, and within a few years after graduation, he was honored by being elected to the presidency of his *alma mater.* In 1817 he resigned the presidency of Jefferson College to accept the presidency of Washington College, in the hope that the two institutions might be united. From the troubles attending the attempt at union, Dr. Wylie was led to resign his position, to leave Pennsylvania and accept the presidency of Indiana College. This was in 1828. There he lived and worked until his death, in 1851. Among the resolutions of the board of trustees, on the occasion of his death, we find the following:

> *Resolved,* That a just regard to the memory of the first president of our university, who has labored so long and earnestly to build up an institution of learning worthy of our State, imposes new and greatly increased responsibilities upon all connected with the university; and that the best and most permanent monument to his name is the Indiana University, made such as he for a series of years was striving to make it—the pride and ornament of Indiana.

Judge David McDonald, professor of law in the university, in some remarks to his class at the time of Dr. Wylie's death, made use of the following language: "Andrew Wylie was a man of truth. He was so not merely because of his views of policy, but because he loved the truth. In thought, in word, in action, he was truthful; and no man during a long life ever pursued the truth with more unwearied search through all the fields of learning and science." These quotations may serve to indicate the estimate of acquaintances and students of Dr. Wylie's character and ability. Dr. Wylie's publications were not numerous. A small work, entitled "Sectarianism is Heresy," was

noticed favorably by the Boston Dial, but criticised unfavorably, while its ability was admitted, by the Princeton Review. These, together with a large number of baccalaureate addresses, sermons, and some translations from Plato, were all the writings ever printed from his pen. He was a man of active life, a practical teacher, and while he was a thorough scholar, his aspirations or inclinations did not lead him toward authorship. Governor Henry A. Wise, of Virginia, who graduated under Dr. Wylie's presidency in Jefferson College, said of him: "I proudly boast that he was the best moral philosopher, metaphysician, and Greek linguist whom, as far as my knowledge extends, this country has produced." The late Dr. Robert Baird testified: "It can not be questioned that he was one of the best educated men of his country. He was thoroughly versed in history, was an able logician and metaphysician, and in classical learning his knowledge was great and extensive." Dr. Wylie's address at Wabash College, July, 1838, on "The Retention of Greek and Latin in the College Curriculum," attracted attention from classical scholars throughout the country. His "Eulogy on Lafayette," delivered in Bloomington, elicited a letter of praise from Daniel Webster and other men of national reputation. The students of Dr. Wylie were charged with regarding their president with inconsiderate and enthusiastic "idolatry." It is evident that President Wylie has left behind him the traces and indications of a a great man.

Dr. Cyrus Nutt came to the presidency in 1860. At that time the faculty consisted of seven professors, including the president—Elisha Ballantine, T. A. Wylie, James Woodburn, Judge Bryant, professor of law. Professors Hibben and Marquis had lately been elected to the chairs of English literature and modern languages. During the fifteen years of Dr. Nutt's service he labored constantly, with great self-sacrifice and devotion, in popularizing the university throughout the State, and in removing sectarian suspicion and opposition. Cyrus Nutt was born in Trumbull County, Ohio, in 1814. He was educated at Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa., where he graduated in 1831. He was immediately made principal of the preparatory department of his *alma mater*, and was soon called from there to a similar position in Indiana Asbury College, Greencastle. He became professor of languages in that institution in 1837, and retained this chair until 1843, when he retired for pastoral work in the Methodist Episcopal Church, in which church he had been for some time a leading minister. In 1849 he became president of Fort Wayne Female College, and again in 1857 he was recalled to Asbury. He labored at a time when from an educational point of view Indiana was virgin soil, and he lived long enough to see and to reap great fruits from his laborious sowing.

Dr. Theophilus Adam Wylie, a coworker with Nutt, a contemporary but not a relative of the elder Wylie, retired but a few years ago from active teaching in the university after a half-century of faithful and

acceptable service. He is now, at the age of eighty, professor emeritus of physics and astronomy. Professor Wylie graduated from the University of Pennsylvania in 1830, in his twentieth year. He was born in Philadelphia in 1810. He came to Indiana in 1837 as professor of natural philosophy and chemistry. With the exception of one year's absence, in 1852, during which he occupied a professorship in Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, he served the Indiana University continuously until his retirement, in 1886, a period of forty-nine years. Dr. Wylie has the characteristics of the modest and retiring scholar, and is remembered by the generations of students who have been under his care as a helpful and thorough teacher. Passing with the university through various calamities and changes, he has been called upon for services of various kinds, and he is one of the few versatile men of his day who had the attainments to enable him to teach whatever the curriculum required. Professor Wylie was, until recently, a minister in the Reformed Presbyterian (Covenanter) Church, and was a personal friend of his fellow-churchman, the distinguished philanthropist, Hon. George H. Stuart, of Philadelphia. No one has rendered better or more faithful service to the cause of education in the State of Indiana than this venerable scholar, who, without seeking honor or preferment, has found the highest honor in the recognition of the thousands of students whom he has benefited.

Another of these classical scholars was *Elisha Ballantine*, who gave his life and his talents to the cause of the church and Christian education. Professor Ballantine was born at Schodack-on-the-Hudson, N. Y., October 11, 1809. He graduated from the Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, in 1828, and afterwards studied at Union Theological Seminary, in Virginia, and at Halle and Leipsic, in Germany. He was professor of Hebrew and Greek in Union Theological Seminary from 1831 to 1837, and professor of languages in Ohio University from 1838 to 1840. From 1840 to 1852 he was engaged in the ministry of the Presbyterian Church, being pastor of the First Church, Washington, D. C., for four years. He came to Indiana University in 1854 as professor of mathematics, but was soon transferred to the chair of languages. In 1863 he resigned his professorship to accept the secretaryship of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church, and in 1866 was called to the chair of Hebrew in the Lane Theological Seminary, Cincinnati, Ohio. He returned to the Indiana University in 1867 as professor of Greek, and continued in service until his final retirement, in 1878. He died suddenly, at his home in Bloomington, March 31, 1886, after a service of more than fifty years in the ministry and as an educator.

Professor Ballantine was recognized by all who knew him as a scholar and a teacher. Dignified, direct, simple, and sincere, he was without dissembling and flattery. Benevolent and kind, he was beloved by all with whom he came in contact, and was respected by

all classes and denominations of men. As a scholar and a literary man, Professor Ballantine occupied the first rank. He had a thorough knowledge of Latin and Greek, was an excellent Hebrew scholar, and was conversant with other Semitic languages, and had ready use of the German and French tongues. He was the father of President William G. Ballantine, of Oberlin College, who received from his father's tutelage his first scholarly instincts and impressions.

Daniel Kirkwood is another distinguished name whose services have given luster to the last generation of Indiana University. Only those who have known him personally will understand with what honor his name should be uttered. His work in applied mathematics, especially in astronomy, made his name known a generation ago among scholarly men throughout the world. Herschel and Proctor and Loomis were his friends, correspondents, and admirers, and his name was better known on the continent of Europe than in some parts of Indiana. Dr. Kirkwood first published in 1839 his "Analogy in the Periods of Rotation of the Primary Planets," in Silliman's Journal of Science. This analogy, derived from La Place's nebular theory, was first brought to the attention of Prof. Sears C. Walker in a private letter from young Kirkwood, who was at that time principal of the Pottsville Academy, in Pennsylvania, and upon its publication it attracted much attention both in Europe and America. Professor Kirkwood came to Indiana as professor of mathematics in Indiana University in 1856, and he continued to occupy this position until his retirement as emeritus professor in 1886, with the exception of two years during which he was professor of mathematics in Jefferson College, Cannonsburgh, Pa. Professor Kirkwood published a paper in the Proceedings of the Royal Astronomical Society of London which first indicated the cause of the intervals between Saturn's rings.

Numerous papers from his pen have won him distinction among scientific men. A "Treatise on Comets and Meteors," published by Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia; "Kirkwood's Analogy," already noticed; "On the Nebular Hypothesis," in Silliman's Journal, 1860; "On the Formation and Primitive Condition of the Solar System," published in the Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, are a few of the many original papers which he has produced. He is also the author of the articles on astronomy in the annual supplements of Appleton's Cyclopedia. Dr. Kirkwood is still living, in retirement, and in good health, at Riverside, Cal. He was born in Harford County, Md., in 1814. He spent the best years of his life to promote the cause of higher education in Indiana. His services to the State have been of the kind which seldom receive their due recognition and meed of praise until the lapse of years. While a generation may seem unappreciative, republics do not continue always ungrateful in their bestowal of honor. Dr. Kirkwood will receive the highest honor of the teacher, the reward most acceptable to the modest scholar—his work in the years to come

will receive the recognition which it deserves and his name will live in the history of Indiana as one of the great men of his day and generation.

Another name deservedly associated with Wylie, Ballantine, and Kirkwood is that of *Richard Owen*, who was professor of the natural sciences and chemistry in the Indiana University for nearly thirty years. Professor Owen was born in New Lanark, Scotland, in 1810. He was a son of the distinguished socialist and philanthropist, Robert Owen, and a brother of the famous statesman and diplomatist, Robert Dale Owen. He came with his father from Scotland to the New Harmony communal settlement in 1827. He served as captain of a company during the Mexican war, and at the outbreak of the rebellion in 1861 he was commissioned by Governor Morton as lieutenant-colonel of the Fifteenth Indiana Volunteers. His military service extended for two years, when, in 1863, he came to Indiana University as professor of natural philosophy and chemistry. Before the war Colonel Owen had been a teacher of the natural sciences in the Western Military Institute of Kentucky, before which time he acted as an assistant to his brother, David Dale Owen, in making a United States geological survey of Minnesota. In 1859–'60 he made also a geological survey of Indiana, serving during the latter of these years as State geologist. Dr. Owen was an explorer and traveler, and an intelligent and quick observer. He was regarded by the students in his classes as a "professor of general information," for he had a good experimental knowledge of all lands and peoples, and in conversation or class room he was a clever and delightful talker. He was a constant contributor to literary and scientific journals, and until the day of his death he was a devoted and enthusiastic student and investigator in certain lines of the natural sciences. In 1887, ten years after his retirement from the university, at the age of seventy-seven, he contested for a high prize offered by the King of Belgium for the best method for the teaching of geography and the presentation of maps. He was one of the few who, missing the prize, received honorable mention from the Royal Academy. Dr. Owen died March 25, 1890, at his home in New Harmony, Ind., from the effects of poison taken accidentally. His name is one of the best known in Indiana educational history and his services to science were of a high order. The Owen cabinet came to the Indiana University through his influence, and one of the present buildings is named in his honor.

Among this group of scholars there were others whose lives deserve to be sketched, where their names can only be mentioned. *Col. James Thompson*, an honored graduate of West Point, a soldierly scholar, brought a healthful spirit of discipline and training into the university during several years of service as professor of engineering and military tactics; *Hermann B. Boisen*, professor of modern languages during the seventies, a mental enthusiast and a surprising genius, was a teacher with a soul all instinct with tuition, with class in hand the

greatest master it has ever been our privilege to see;[1] *George W. Hoss*, for several years superintendent of public instruction for Indiana, was for a number of years one of the best known members of the faculty in these days; and it may be said of the quarter of a century from 1850 that the university contained a body of men who brought honor to the State, whose great offices to the youth of Indiana will always be remembered with gratitude, and among whom as colaborers in education it is no small honor to have been enrolled. The university has made its greatest changes and its greatest growth under later administrations, but its new strength and breadth have been added to foundations already laid, and no one has a higher and truer appreciation of the benefits which have come from these great men than the distinguished and ingenious young president with whose administration the university entered its renaissance.

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[1] Class History, 1876.

CHAPTER VII.

PURDUE UNIVERSITY.

In the field of American politics belief in the inestimable benefits to the States of the "more perfect union" has long been a part of the popular faith. Though they may not have understood, the people have at least believed that in the source of the Federal Union they live and move and have their being. The sacrifices of years in blood and treasure bear witness to the belief of the people that with the loss of the Union would come the loss of their political life as State and Nation. In the national political life, in the broad sense, education is one of the most important fields of State application; and of the great benefits of the Union in the institutional life of the States the history of popular education affords a specific and striking example.

We have in a measure recognized the beneficent influence of the Federal Government in the development of education in Indiana. That government has been the most generous and powerful patron of the Indiana schools. The two townships for colleges, the sixteenth section for the common schools, the surplus fund, the Saline lands, and minor donations, all coming from the General Government, have proved to be the basis for the growth of the State University and the foundation on which the splendid school fund of the State has arisen. The history of Purdue University continues the story of the benefits received for education in Indiana from the National Government.

Purdue University is the agricultural and mechanical college of Indiana. It has been said of Cornell University that it was the "gift of the United States Government and Ezra Cornell." Purdue rests upon a similar basis—on private benevolence upon the one hand and the gift of the Central Government upon the other. Both institutions, Cornell and Purdue, like many of the State agricultural colleges, had their origin in the act of Congress of July 2, 1862. The history of national legislation upon this subject is not without interest in the study of State agricultural education.

In 1860 the National Government had at its command, with the constitutional right of disposal, more than a billion acres of unclaimed public land.[1] It had not yet given away an empire to Western railways. Agricultural societies throughout the Union, seemingly in concerted

[1] The Land Office Report of 1860 showed 1,400,000,000 acres of public land.

action, had for some years been petitioning Congress for the donation of some of this land to the States for the purpose of agricultural education. The agitation took formal shape at least as early as 1852, when the legislature of Massachusetts passed a resolution asking Congress for a grant of lands for the purpose of promoting a national normal agricultural college. It seems that the idea of Washington in favor of a national institution for education still found favor in the minds of the people. Propositions came from several sources urging that the nation should promote scientific instruction in agriculture, which would soon be needed if we were to preserve our national heritage in forest and field. Abusive methods in cultivation were fast making away with the riches of the soil.

Similar resolutions followed the one in Massachusetts. In 1858 memorials from the Kentucky and New York Agricultural Societies, and from the legislatures of New York, California, and Missouri, praying for lands for educational purposes in State agricultural colleges, were presented in Congress. Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, in speaking upon this subject before the House of Representatives on April 20, 1858, said: "There has been no measure for years which has received so much attention in the various parts of the country as the one now under consideration, so far as the fact can be proved by petitions which have been received from the various States, North and South, from State societies, county societies, and from individuals. Petitions have come in almost every day from the commencement of the session." It will be seen that the agitation in the country had been persistent and forcible.

The bill then before Congress granting land to the States for agricultural colleges, upon which Mr. Morrill spoke the words which we have quoted, was similar in most respects to the one which became a law four years later. It was introduced and brought to its passage in the House by Mr. Morrill. The main difference between his bill and that which finally won success was that the measure of Mr. Morrill granted only 20,000 acres of land to each Representative and Senator in Congress, instead of 30,000 finally allowed. Thus we are again reminded that temporary loss ofttimes results in permanent gain. The first bill passed the House April 22, 1858, and was indorsed by the Senate at the following session. It met the veto of President Buchanan February 24, 1859.

It is not impertinent to our subject to examine the grounds of this veto. It describes the controversy through which we came by our State agricultural colleges; it illustrates the progress of thought on the relation of the State and Federal governments in education; it explains well the view of the cautious, or timid, school of constitutional interpreters; and it sets forth the obstacles which the friends of national aid to education had to encounter a generation ago.

The veto rested mainly, like that of Mr. Buchanan's well-known veto of the homestead bill a year later, upon constitutional grounds. He

urged the minor objections that such a measure was inexpedient in cutting off $5,000,000 of revenue at a time when it was difficult to meet the expenses of Government and to sustain the public credit; that it would be injurious to the new States in enabling speculators who might buy the land scrip to withhold their lands from settlement, and thus run up the price to the actual settler; that the Government would have no power to follow its gift into the States to see that it was properly executed, and that such a donation would interfere with the work and growth of established colleges in the States. "It would be far better," says the message, "if such an appropriation of land must be made to institutions of learning, to apply it directly to the establishment of professorships of agriculture and the mechanic arts in existing colleges without the interference of the State legislatures."

But the main ground of the President's objection was that the proposed grant violated the Constitution of the United States. One of the strictest of the strict school in constitutional construction, Mr. Buchanan presumed it to be "undeniable that Congress does not possess the power to appropriate money in the Treasury, raised by taxes on the people of the United States, for the purpose of educating the people of the respective States. This would be to collect taxes for every State purpose which Congress might deem expedient and useful, an actual consolidation of the Federal and State governments." The power specifically given to Congress "to dispose of the territory and other property of the United States" was to be used only for the objects specifically enumerated in the Constitution. At least the public lands could not be "given away." The President believed that the previous donations of the sixteenth section, and later of the eighteenth and thirty-sixth sections for common schools, and of townships for universities and seminaries, were safely constitutional; but in these transactions the Government had not "given away" land; it had merely acted as a prudent speculator in "disposing of" some land in order to enhance the price of the balance. The message "purposely avoided any attempt to define what portions of land may be granted and for what purposes, to improve the value and promote the sale of the remainder without violating the Constitution."

That would, indeed, have been an interesting definition. It would have squared the circle in a constitutional sense. For nothing has been more impossible in our constitutional history than to limit by rigid and permanent written definitions the constitutional powers of the nation. It is now generally accepted as true that while a written parchment can define broad principles of government which may not be violated, it can not contain specifically all the necessary and proper powers which, under varying circumstances, may be exercised by the State. These must be determined by progressive national interpretation. In the doctrine of implied powers there was found "a sleeping giant in the Constitution" which has been able at numerous times to assert its strength

PURDUE UNIVERSITY.

for the common benefit of all the States. This giant power has been forcibly wielded, always in a beneficent way, in the history of national grants in aid of education within the States. In seeking to promote the public welfare under the same written document, another Congress and a new President found it possible for the nation to extend again a helping hand to the States in the establishment of schools and for the promotion of learning.

"When there is a lack of argument against a measure," said Mr. Morrill, while facing the veto of his bill, "the Constitution is fled to as an inexhaustible source of supply."[1] Firmly believing that the measure which had been defeated was both wise and constitutional, Mr. Morrill reintroduced the measure in the House of the Thirty-ninth Congress, December 16, 1861. It was again unfavorably reported by the Committee on Public Lands, and, seeing its inevitable defeat, Mr. Morrill proposed to submit a substitute, which he hoped would satisfy the committee and the House, but he was overruled by an objection from Mr. Holman. In the meantime the measure had found a champion in the Senate in the person of Senator Wade, of Ohio. On May 5, 1862, Senator Wade introduced in the Senate the bill which finally became a law, and which became the foundation of several State agricultural colleges, among them Purdue University.

The measure did not pass the Senate without decided opposition. After introduction, reference to committee, and favorable report, it was, by request of opponents, laid upon the table for further consideration, and in various ways it was postponed and delayed. Senator Lane, of Kansas, objected to the measure, because it would, as he thought, exhaust all the valuable public lands of Kansas, "the only State with desirable public lands within its borders," and he was opposed to the appropriation of these lands to the use of New York, New Jersey, Georgia, or South Carolina, or of any other State than Kansas. Senator Lane finally fell back on the constitutional objection and warned the Senate against the danger of "giving to sovereign States the right of entering lands within sovereign States." Lane and his coadjutors, unable to defeat the bill, made a successful fight for the amendment

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[1] Mr. W. R. W. Cobb, of Alabama, chairman of the Committee on Public Lands in the House in 1858, in speaking against the passage of the agricultural college bill, thought that if the proposition became a law "the people of every State will have the right to come and ask Congress to provide for their common schools and other local institutions. The poor will have a right to come and ask Congress to grant lands to aid in the erection of buildings to shelter them from the inclemency of the weather." Yet, a few months before, Mr. Cobb, at the request of a memorial from his State legislature, had voted for a grant of lands to aid the establishment of insane asylums in the States. Facing the difficult and embarrassing task of reconciling this vote with the one he was about to cast, he explained that a young lady philanthropist—a Miss Dix who had advocated the former measure in his State—had by her persuasions "such an extraordinary effect that he gave way to his better feelings without examining the constitutional questions involved." There have been many interesting inconsistencies in the history of constitutional interpretation.

that not more than 1,000,000 acres of the land should be located in any one State by assignees of the land scrip. The anticipated evil of the bill to the new States, beyond the general objection to non-resident holdings of land, was that the land scrip would be bought up at cheap rates, 50 or 75 cents per acre, by speculators, who would place their claim on the best lands within these States, and by holding for a high price would retard settlements and the growth of population.

The objections and the repeated postponements for the consideration of other propositions finally led Senator Wade to remark that he "would never get his bill through unless he stood by it," and in moving the final consideration of the measure in the Senate he proposed "not to give it up for anything." The forcible way Senator Wade had of standing by what he believed in was not without its effect in this instance. His bill, as amended by Senator Lane, passed the Senate June 10, 1862. It passed the House one week later, and on July 2, 1862, it received the signature of President Lincoln and became a law.

By this measure it was "enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled, that there be granted to the several States, for the purposes hereinafter mentioned, an amount of public land, to be apportioned to each State a quantity equal to 30,000 acres for each Senator and Representative in Congress to which the States are respectively entitled under the census of 1860." The lands to be selected excluded all mineral lands, and were to be chosen within the respective States if there were enough such lands subject to sale at private entry for $1.25. Otherwise, the Secretary of the Interior was to issue land scrip for the amount of the deficiency, the scrip to be sold by the States and the proceeds to be applied for the uses prescribed in this act. This land scrip was to give the buyer full claim to any unappropriated land of the United States which was then subject to sale at $1.25. The buyer had but to enter the land properly to make it his own. All taxes and expenses attached to the necessary proceedings of sale and ownership were not to come out of the funds so appropriated, but were to be paid by the States. All moneys derived from this donation were to be invested in stocks of the United States or of the States or some other safe stock yielding not less than 5 per cent. per annum on the par value, "to constitute a perpetual fund, the capital of which shall remain forever undiminished, the interest of which shall be inviolably appropriated to the endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts in such manner as the legislatures of the States may prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life."

The conditions attached to the grant, which are worthy of notice, may be briefly summarized as follows:

(1) The fund was to remain inviolate, never to be diverted from the purposes for which it was granted, and any loss of principal or interest was to be replaced by the State.

(2) No portion of the fund was to be applied directly or indirectly to the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building. This expense was to be met by the State.

(3) Any State which might take and claim the benefit of the provisions of this act was required to provide, within five years, at least one college, as described in the act, or the grant to such State should cease; and the State should then be bound to pay to the United States the amount received of any lands previously sold, and the title to purchasers under the State should be valid.

(4) An annual report shall be made on the progress of each college, recording improvements and experiments, one copy of which shall be sent by each to all the other colleges which may be endowed under the act, and one copy to the Secretary of the Interior.

(5) If lands were selected by any State in places where railroad grants or other causes had raised the land above Government price, the number of acres allowed to the State should be proportionally diminished.

(6) No State was to be entitled to the benefits of the act unless it expressed acceptance thereof by its legislature within two years from the date of its approval by the President. On April 14, 1864, Congress extended by two years the time within which a State might signify its acceptance of the grant, and offered the benefits of the grant to the State of West Virginia.

Indiana, with 2 Senators and 11 Representatives by the census of 1860, received as her share of this donation 390,000 acres of land, or the equivalent in land scrip. From this source she realized for her agricultural college $340,000. The State accepted the grant March 6, 1865, by an act providing for the receipt, investment, and management of the donation. She accepted and claimed the benefits of the provisions of the Congressional act and assented to all the conditions and provisions contained therein. The Governor of the State, and Alfred Pollard of Gibson County, Smith Vawter of Jennings County, Henry Taylor of Tippecanoe County, and Lewis Burke of Wayne County, and their successors, were created a body corporate for the management of the institution under the name of the Trustees of Indiana Agricultural College. The land scrip, to be received by the board through its treasurer from the Secretary of the Interior, was to be sold at the most advantageous terms, and the proceeds invested in United States stocks yielding not less than 5 per centum on the par value of stock.

The act of 1865, however, made no provision for the location of the institution, and so strong a rivalry sprang up among several places in the State that it was not until the special session of 1869 that the matter was finally settled. The act of that session accepted a donation of

$150,000 from John Purdue, on condition that the donation be made effectual, and in consideration thereof the State agreed that the institution should bear the "name and style of Purdue University," and Mr. Purdue was made a life member of the board of trustees. The State also at this time accepted a donation of 100 acres of land adjoining the proposed site of the institution from the citizens of West La Fayette, a donation of $50,000 from Tippecanoe County, and some other minor and contingent donations. The act located the institution in Tippecanoe County, at such point as the trustees might subsequently decide, gave it the name of Purdue University, and provided for its organization.[1]

Prior to this time the trust funds arising from the sale of the land scrip, amounting to $340,000, had been managed by a board of trustees with the corporate name "The Trustees of the Indiana Agricultural College." In 1870 the board was reorganized to meet the new conditions; in 1871 its number was increased from five to nine, and this board purchased the site of the university, constructed the buildings immediately needed, and made provisions for the opening of the institution.

It was expected that it would be possible to open the university in 1873, and in August, 1872, Prof. Richard Owen, of the department of natural science in the State University, was elected president. The hope of opening the university in 1873 was not realized, and in March, 1874, President Owen resigned his position. To meet the requirements of the act of Congress, which required the institution to be opened as early as July, 1874, one of the professors took charge of a class on the 2d of March, 1874, and gave instructions until June.

On September 17, 1874, the doors of the university were formally opened, with A. C. Shortridge, president, and the following chairs filled:

Physics and industrial mechanics.

Mathematics and engineering.

Botany and horticulture.

Chemistry.

English literature and drawing.

By an act of the legislature, which went into force August 24, 1875, the Governor of the State was authorized to appoint six trustees, two of whom to be nominated by the State board of agriculture, one by the State board of horticulture, and three selected by the Governor himself. The trustees are to represent different Congressional districts, except that two may come from the district in which the university is located, and their term of service was fixed at three years. The board of county commissioners in each county was authorized to appoint, in such manner as it may choose, "two students or scholars to Purdue University, who shall be entitled to enter, remain, and receive instruction in the same, upon the same conditions, qualifications, and regulations prescribed for other applicants, room rent and tuition free."

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[1] Credit is due for subsequent parts of this chapter to Dr. Stanley Coulter, professor of biology in Purdue University.

We have thus briefly concluded the legal history of Purdue University, except on points where the legislation of the State touched its financial management in the line of carrying out those provisions of its foundation which we have fully enough described.

The plan of organization adopted by the board of trustees was based on the theory of special education, and the instruction of the university was distributed among the following special schools:

I. School of natural science, including—
   (*a*) Physics and industrial mechanics.
   (*b*) Chemistry.
   (*c*) Natural history.
II. School of engineering, including—
   (*a*) Civil engineering.
   (*b*) Mining engineering.
   (*c*) Architecture.
III. School of agriculture, including—
   (*a*) Theoretical and practical agriculture.
   (*b*) Horticulture.
   (*c*) Veterinary science.
IV. School of military science.

Detailed courses of study, however, were only adopted and announced in agriculture, chemistry, engineering, and physics. For two years the university was conducted on this plan of special education, but there seemed little demand for the special courses of instruction provided. The only special students received entered the school of chemistry, and most of these were in preparatory branches in other studies. Nearly all the students entered the preparatory classes.

President Shortridge resigned November 5, 1875, and after a brief interregnum E. E. White, LL. D., was elected president, entering upon his duties May 1, 1876. In June, 1876, by action of the board of trustees, the university was divided into three departments, the college of general science, special schools of science and industry, and the university academy. The college was first organized with but one course of study, the scientific course, so arranged as to be a general preparation, not only for all industrial pursuits, but for the courses in the special schools.

In 1879 the college was made to embrace three courses, the scientific, agricultural, and mechanical; and the special school of agriculture with its experiment station and the school of mechanics with its work-shop were put into successful operation.

Upon the resignation of President White, in 1883, James H. Smart, LL. D., was called to the presidency by the board of trustees, and under his administration the subsequent development of the institution has taken place. At the opening of the fall term of 1883 the school of industrial art was made a distinctive school, and in 1884 the school of pharmacy was established. In 1887 the school of civil engineering was organized, as was also the special school of veterinary science. In this

year, also, by virtue of the provisions of the "Hatch bill," the annual grant from the National Government for the use of experiment stations became available, and the station in connection with the university was at once greatly strengthened and thoroughly equipped. To meet still further the necessities of the university there have been organized special courses in various branches for resident post-graduate students, the immediate necessity for which is made apparent by the fact that nearly 50 per cent. of the last two graduating classes have entered the work in these courses. In 1889 the school of electrical engineering was organized and provision for buildings and needed apparatus made by the State legislature. The addition of these various schools has not been made at the expense of the work in existing departments, for in these there has been a constant and earnest endeavor to increase their efficiency and, as far as possible, their scope.

From the organization of the university to the present time there has been a constant increase in the number of students in attendance, the increase being very largely in the college department. At the same time there has been a corresponding increase in the faculty, so that at least up to the present time Purdue University has escaped many of the dangers which its rapid growth made probable.

As in all colleges established under the act of Congress referred to, the work of Purdue University has been in a certain measure experimental. The phrase "for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts" was sufficiently indefinite to invite the variety of interpretations it has called forth. The interpretation placed upon it by the authorities of Purdue University, briefly stated, is that the teaching of branches relating to agriculture and the mechanic arts shall be the leading object, and as a consequence that the teaching of the other branches shall be made a subordinate object. The experimental part of the past work of the university has been chiefly in determining what branches of learning could be fairly classed as relating to agriculture and the mechanic arts, and the degree of subordination necessary to maintain the leading object and still provide for "the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life." The courses of study as laid down in the various catalogues of the university, mark with sufficient clearness not only the modifications of the original plan of organization which experience proved necessary, but also the growth from a school of somewhat indefinite ends, to a practical and thoroughly equipped school of applied science.

The manifest recognition by the authorities of the university of the fact that, in order to meet the growing demand of the times, there must be a growing excellence in the character of the work done, is one of the most promising signs of the future. The policy of the management also warrants the belief that future advances will lie chiefly in the improvement of the character of the work done and not in further extension of the scope of work. What the university hopes to do for the

State in the future, is to send out men and women thoroughly trained along the lines indicated by the present curriculum. The work of the future will be cumulative, not different. A brief sketch of the work done in the various departments will give the best means for judging what the future influence of the university will be.

Agriculture.—In the arrangement of this course it was necessary to consider with a great deal of care many important economic problems, and the course presented is the attempt of the management of Purdue University to solve these problems.

"Those who have studied the progress of agriculture in this country will tell you that one of its most alarming features is the degeneracy of the soil. In many cases the shrinkage in its productive power has been fully 30 per cent., and in some it is still going on at a very rapid rate. This is certainly alarming.

"In addition, there is still a greater wastage that results from misdirected effort in cropping and seeding, in cultivation and in gathering and curing of crops, but worse than all is the enormous destruction of grains, fruits, and of domestic animals through disease. Hundreds of millions of dollars are lost in the United States every year by fungous diseases, and hundreds of millions by insect ravages. It is estimated that in the United States the loss from insect ravages alone amounts to $300,000,000 annually.

"We have not far to go to find the cause. It comes chiefly from the fact, I think, that the tendency of modern civilization is such as to educate the boy in the rural districts out of his surroundings and away from his natural occupation, to make him dissatisfied and restless with his environment, and to fill him with a desire to move out and to move off."[1]

Whatever may be the cause, the fact remains that in many parts of the country the numbers of the so-called nonproducing classes are increasing and of the producing classes, in the rural districts, comparatively decreasing. One of the greatest industrial problems of the day is involved in these questions: "How shall we keep our sons and daughters out of the rush and whirl of city life, and in the pure free air of our rural life? How shall we keep them in the ranks of the great producing classes?" This must be done by proper education. It is the province of agricultural colleges to induce the young men to remain upon the farm, not because they are compelled to do so, but because they so desire. In this age of fierce competition every man must enter the conflict fully armed and equipped for his work.

"Science, and especially agricultural science, has made such gigantic strides in the last few years that agriculture has almost become a profession, requiring as much skill and sense as it does to become a first-rate lawyer or a first-rate physician.

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[1] *Industrial education:* President J. H. Smart, before the Sixth National Committee of the Bureaus of Statistics of Labor of the United States, pp. 4 and 5.

"Science teaches us that nature will not be cheated. It teaches us that we can not expect the soil to respond with a continued harvest if it is subjected to constant robbery. It teaches that taking money out of the soil and putting it into a bank may make rich farmers, but that it will be likely to make poor sons, and that the safest bank of deposit for a farmer is his farm.

"Now, we may not be able to make two blades of grass grow where one grew before, but it is possible to stop this enormous wastage and to largely increase the annual yield of agricultural products and to improve their quality.

"The agricultural college can not directly educate all of the farmers in a State. What it can do and ought to do is this: It can send out a dozen men in each county of a State in which it is located, well informed, well disciplined, capable of applying the very best methods of farming in the most practical and economic way, and who will, by example as well as by precept, show the better methods."[1]

This is the work Purdue University hopes to accomplish for the State of Indiana through its school of agriculture. The facilities for the work in this department are of such character and extent as to warrant the belief that this hope will soon be an accomplished fact. The college campus, Peirce conservatory, nursery, orchard, experiment farm, and meteorological station afford facilities for practically illustrating the class-room instruction. The experimental grounds contain many varieties of grapes and small fruits, grains, and grasses, which furnish ample means for observation and training in those branches especially adapted to the farmer and fruit-grower. The museum connected with the department of veterinary science contains skeletons of the various domestic animals, pathological specimens, dissections, and models. Free clinics are held one day of each week. The improved breeds of cattle on the college farm and in the vicinity of La Fayette afford good opportunity for illustrating the instruction on live stock and stock breeding.

But the most important addition to the facilities of Purdue University is the establishment of an experiment station by the United States, with an income of $15,000 per annum.

This new endowment is the most notable occurrence in the history of the university so far as its relation to agricultural pursuits is concerned.

The plans for station work have been carefully considered and have been mapped out on the most extensive scale. A comprehensive series of crop rotations has been planned and inaugurated, a series of feeding experiments has been arranged, a plant of lysimeters has been completed, and the members of the staff are busily engaged in preparing bulletins on economic agricultural questions.

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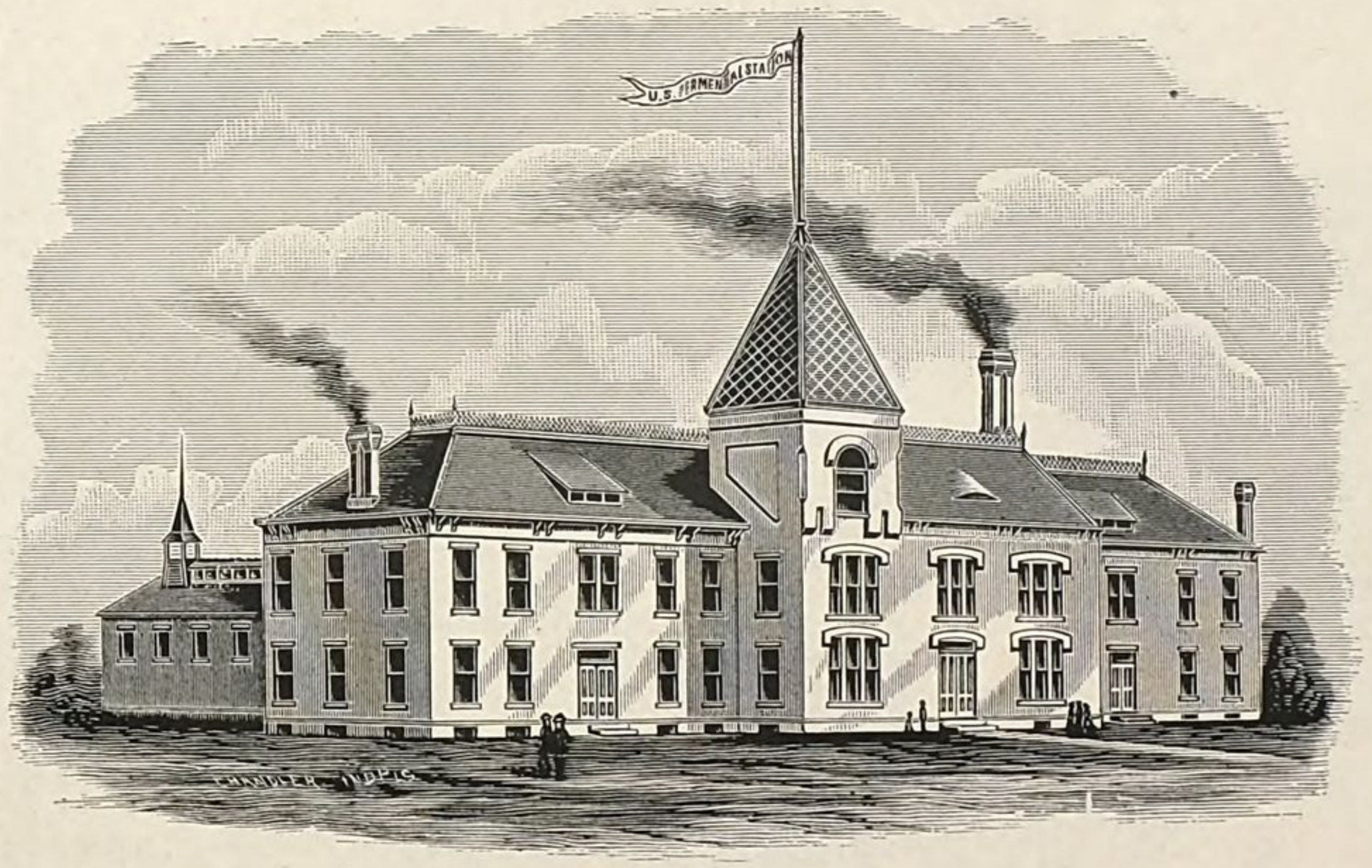
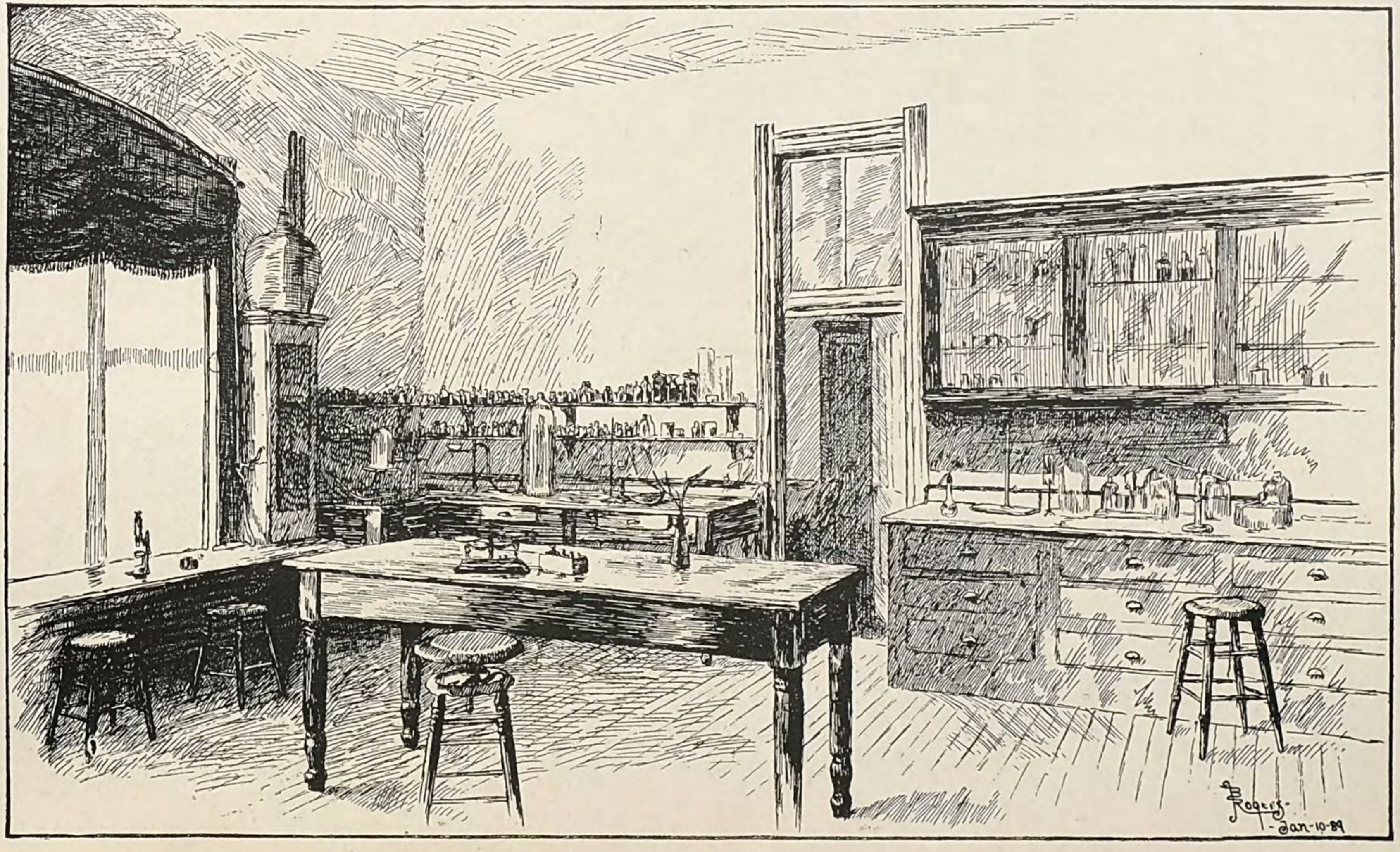
[1] *Industrial Education:* J. H. Smart, pp. 6 and 7.



AGRICULTURAL HALL, PURDUE UNIVERSITY.



INTERIOR OF BOTANICAL LABORATORY, U. S. EXPERIMENT STATION.

The building devoted to this purpose contains twenty rooms, distributed as follows:

Director's office, one room.
Library, one room.
Chemical department, five rooms.
Botanical department, four rooms.
Horticultural department, two rooms.
Entomological department, two rooms.
Veterinarian's office, one room.
Weather service, one room.
Museum, one room.
For recitations, two rooms.

Besides, there are vegetable cellars, storage room for grains, and a temporary dissecting room.

The building is furnished with water and gas throughout, and is heated by steam, which is generated by an independent boiler. The laboratories, work rooms, and offices have been thoroughly fitted and supplied with the most modern apparatus and appliances.

Mechanical engineering.—It is the purpose of the school of mechanical engineering to afford young men an opportunity to acquire a good collegiate education in mathematics, science, literature, and art, and at the same time to secure instruction and practice in such lines of work as will fit them to engage in the practical industries of life.

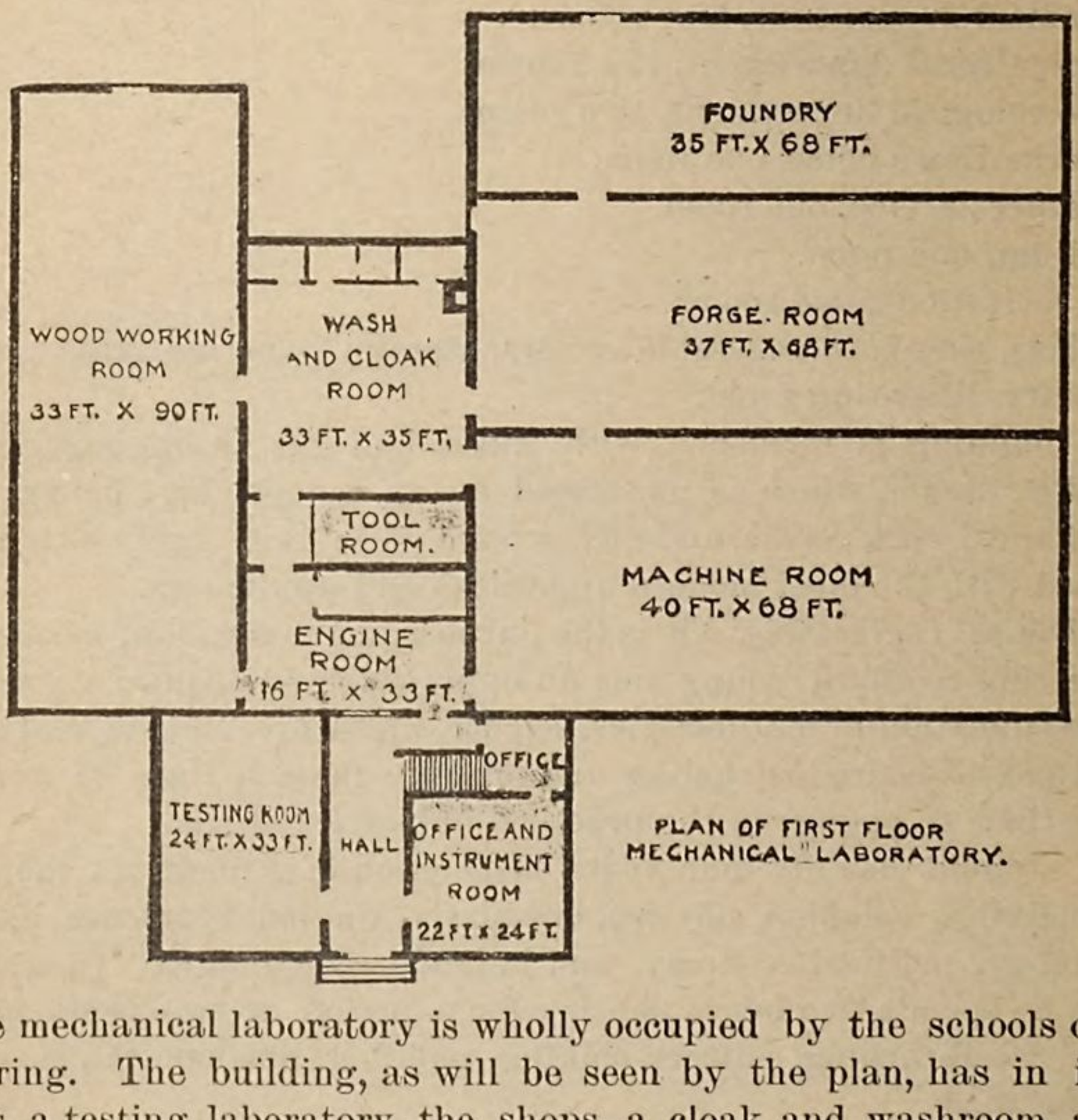
The student has his four years' instruction in geometry, trigonometry, analytics, calculus, physics, chemistry, English literature, history, psychology, political economy, and in modern languages. In addition to this he spends two hours per day for a period of two years in carpentry, wood-turning, pattern-making, molding, blacksmithing, and in machine work.

The usual methods of text-book study, recitation, and lecture are employed, but the student is required to put into practice, so far as possible, the instruction which he receives. He, for example, not only receives instruction in regard to the theory and principles of drawing, pattern-making, and machine construction, but he is required to make working drawings himself, to construct patterns, to make the castings in the foundry, to finish and set up the machine, and to operate it when it is completed. This combination of the theoretical and the practical characterizes the institution.

During the last two years of this course he spends two hours per day in making plans and designs for machinery, in testing building material, in boiler and engine tests, in dynamometric tests of power, and in advanced experimental engineering.

It may be asked, is it the purpose to make carpenters and blacksmiths? This is an incidental, but not the final purpose. The purpose is to teach the principles that underlie all the constructive trades, and to fit the student to become a designer of machines, a master of con-

struction; in other words, a mechanical engineer. It is held that a mechanical engineer should himself be a good mechanic. It is held, also, that a civil engineer should be a good mechanic. Those who wish to become expert mechanics merely remain for two years, while those who wish to become mechanical engineers remain four.



PLAN OF FIRST FLOOR MECHANICAL LABORATORY.

The mechanical laboratory is wholly occupied by the schools of engineering. The building, as will be seen by the plan, has in it the offices, a testing laboratory, the shops, a cloak and washroom, and a large drawing room.

The following is a description of the rooms and the appliances in them:

The drawing room is provided with drawing tables and boards for 55 students. There is also provided, for general use, a supply of the more expensive drawing tools.

In the wings of the building are a wood-working room, a foundry, a forge room, and a machine room, and connected with these are an engine room and a tool room. Between the wings is a wash and cloak room that is accessible from all the other rooms.

The wood-working room contains 40 benches with full sets of bench tools for wood, 21 lathes for wood turning, a circular saw, band saw, scroll saw, and 2 grindstones. The foundry is equipped with a cupola furnace for iron, a crucible furnace for brass, a large and a small core oven, and separate benches, each supplied with a full set of molder's tools for 30 students, besides facilities for heavier work on the floor. The forge room has 24 forges with air blast and exhaust systems, the fans for which are driven by power, the air blast system being under

the floor. Each forge has an anvil and the usual set of smithing tools. There are, besides, general tools in the room. The machine room contains one screw-cutting lathe of 18 inch swing, two of 16-inch swing, eight of 14-inch swing, and one of 10-inch swing; also, a machine planer, a shaper, a universal milling machine, an emery tool grinder, a cutter grinder, two vertical drilling machines, two speed lathes, and an emery grinder. These machines are provided with all the small tools necessary to their use. In the machine room, also, are benches fitted with vises and the tools used in hand-work in metal for 40 students.

The motive power for the shops is supplied by an automatic cut-off engine of 35 horse-power.

The work done by the testing laboratory includes the determination of the strength and other physical properties of the materials of construction, the testing of steam boilers by hydraulic pressure, examination and correction of steam gauges, determination of the evaporative power and economy of combustion of fuel of steam-boilers, and of the efficiency and amount of fuel consumed per horse-power of steam-engines. The laboratory also determines the relative value of coals for steaming purposes, conducts competitive tests of rival engines, boilers, or other machinery, and is prepared to make experimental determinations in other matters of interest to the engineering profession.

Students perform work in the testing laboratory as part of the regular course in strength of materials, boilers, and steam-engines, and assist in all commercial and experimental work done by the laboratory.

Among the recent additions to the experimental machinery is a 10 horse-power improved balance dynamometer. With this instrument reliable experimental work may be done in all tests of engine friction, and of the power transmitted by machinery.

The laboratory is provided with a powerful machine for testing the strength and elasticity of materials. The machine can exert any strain up to 50,000 pounds, and can subject the specimen to tension, compression, or transverse strain. In addition the laboratory possesses a steam-gauge tester, steam-engine indicator, planimeter, micrometer, and other necessary appliances, and has the use of the thoroughly equipped shops of the university.

Civil engineering.—The object of the course is to fit the student for immediate usefulness in the field, and also to enable him, after reasonable experience, to fulfill the duties of engineer in the more responsible branches of the profession.

During the first two years the course is almost identical with that of the school of mechanical engineering. The last two years are more especially devoted to the theory and practice of civil engineering.

This department is fully supplied with field instruments of the best description, comprising a Gurley transit, a solar theodolite, made by Holmes, of Batavia, N. Y., solar compass, Y-levels, sextant, surveyor's compass, chains, leveling rods, ranging poles, etc., and a Locke hand-

level. The mathematical department is also equipped with a fine astronomical telescope of high power. An excellent photograph camera, capable of taking a 5 by 8 picture, is also at the disposal of students in this department. The department is also supplied with a number of photographs of existing structures; a number of blue-print copies of details, joints, etc., of existing bridges.

The drawing rooms are fully equipped with tables, boards, T-squares, etc., and the facilities for making blue-prints of designs are all that can be desired.

School of science.—The special object of the school of science is to give a thorough training in biological, chemical, and physical science. It combines with this as much literary, mathematical, and philosophical work as possible.

The large number of electives offered gives the Juniors and Seniors in the school of science the option of three different courses of study, in each of which one of the following subjects may engage the greater part of the student's time, viz: (1) biology; (2) chemistry; and (3) literature and history.

The biological laboratories are provided with an extensive outfit of microscopes and dissecting instruments, together with all other appliances needed in instruction or investigation. Forty-two compound microscopes are owned by the university and are made by Beck, Bausch & Lomb, Zentmayer, and C. Zeiss. The objectives range from a 3-inch to the homogenous immersion lenses of Spencer and Zeiss. The laboratory also owns 36 dissecting microscopes, chiefly the Rothrock stand. The usual accessories, such as microtomes, polarizers, camera lucida, micrometers, etc., are all of the most approved models.

Thirty-one sets of dissecting instruments of the simpler form have been provided for the use of students in zoölogy, the department also furnishing the utensils and materials necessary for the work. These laboratories are fully equipped except in apparatus for physiological research. It is expected that during the present year the more essential pieces for work in this department will be ordered. A botanical, zoölogical, and geological museum furnishes sufficient variety of material for illustration or comparison.

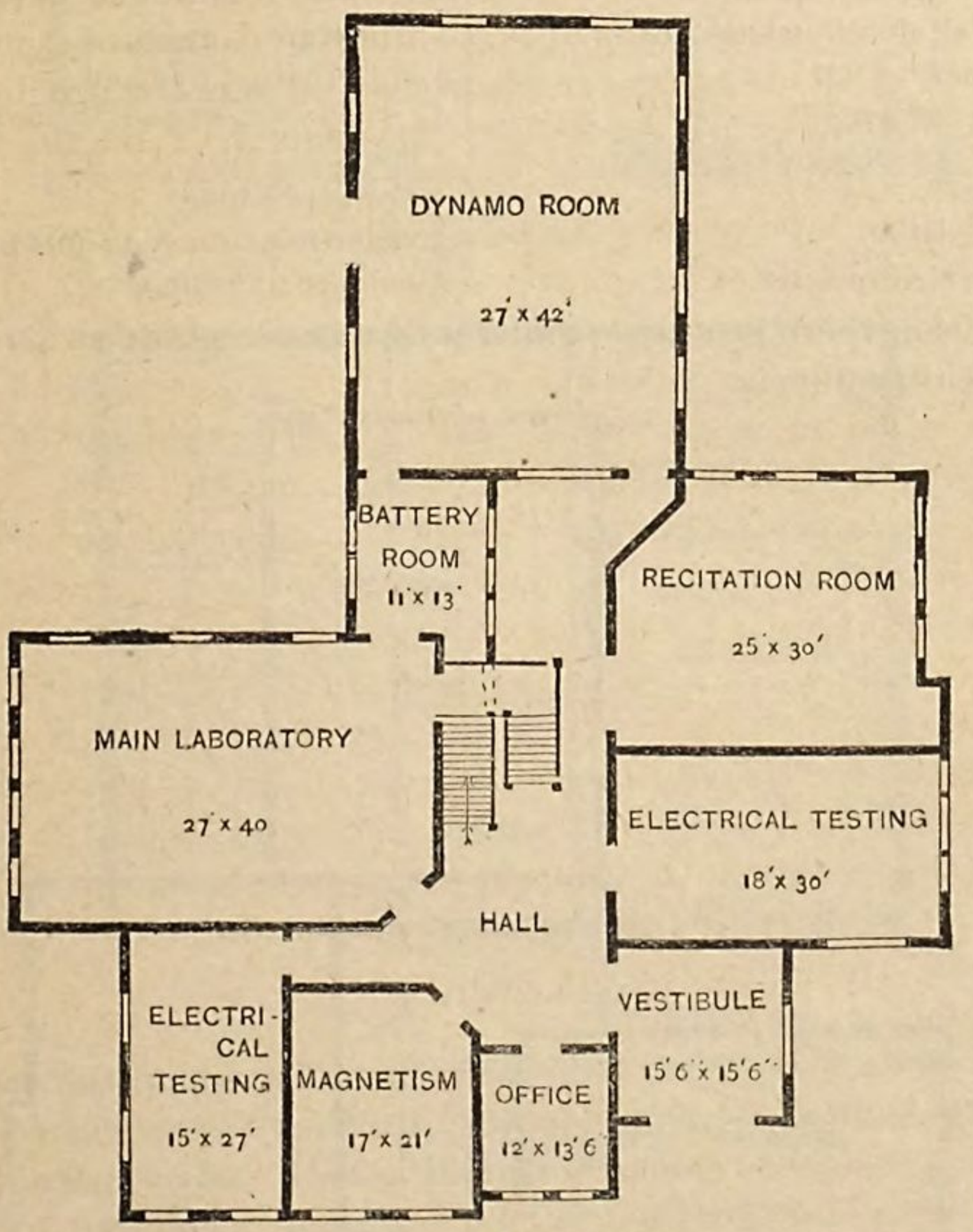
The university has a good supply of chemical apparatus and a well-equipped laboratory. Each student is furnished with a full set of apparatus and the necessary chemicals for all his work and experiments, and he is held responsible for their proper use. He is charged with actual breakage and damage. Beside the private laboratories of the professors and advanced students, desk room is furnished for 100 pupils.

Electric engineering.—In view of the growing need for instruction in the applications of electricity, the trustees of this university have established a special and complete course in this important department. A recent appropriation by the State for this express purpose enabled them to provide unusual facilities for students of electricity.

The object of this course is to train the student, so far as is possible, in the theory and practice of the industrial applications of electricity, and to fit him for immediate usefulness in the same.

Inasmuch as the practical electrician must be thoroughly acquainted with the principles of machinery and methods of machine work, this course has been based on the course in mechanical engineering, being identical with it in the Freshman year, differing from it in the Sophomore year only in the introduction of modern language, and containing the fundamental studies of mechanical engineering throughout the Junior and Senior years.

A large and handsome building has been constructed especially for this work.

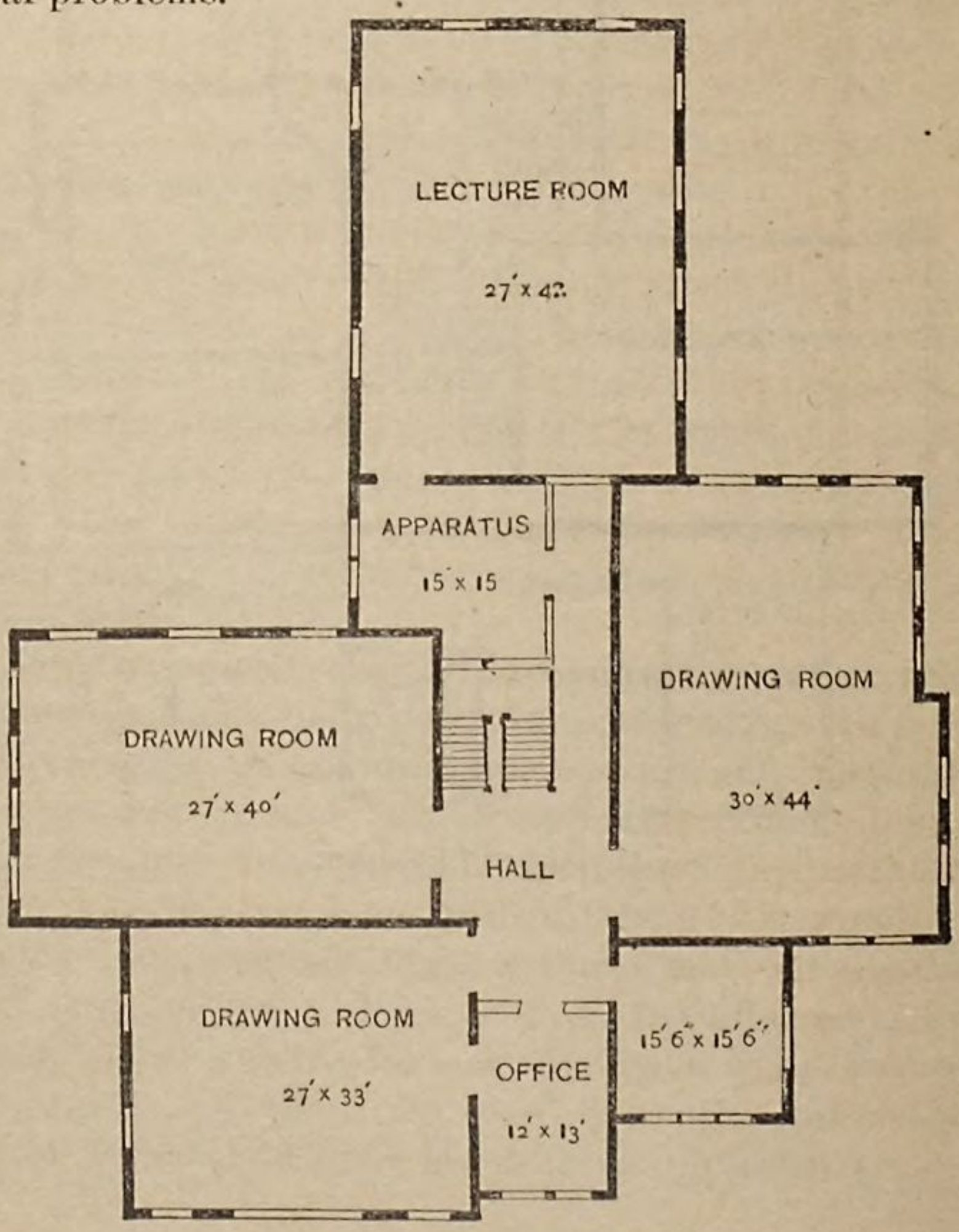


Plan of First Floor

The equipment already at hand consists of a full supply of the usual apparatus of a physical laboratory, together with the following apparatus for the special study of applied electricity:

Two standard tangent galvanometers.
An Edelmann dead-heat reflecting galvanometer.
An Edelmann electrometer.
One Thomson reflecting galvanometer, fitted either for ordinary use or use as a ballistic galvanometer.
An electrostatic voltmeter.
Two Carpentier voltmeters.
Two Carpentier ammeters.
A Thomson ampere balance.
A Thomson balance voltmeter.
A Siemens electro-dynamometer.
A Cardew voltmeter.
A portable testing set.
A portable ballistic galvanometer.
A tachometer.
A testing battery.
A Thomson electrometer.
A new Jenney incandescent dynamo.
An Ayrton & Perry ammeter.
A set of resistance coils for use in getting the characteristics of dynamos.
Four B. A. bridges.
Three portable Edelmann bridge boxes.
A Gramme dynamo for arc or incandescent lighting.
A Thomson-Houston arc dynamo.
A Baxter motor.
A set of resistance coils for large currents.
An Edison incandescent dynamo.
A Brush arc dynamo.
An alternating dynamo.
A compound-wound incandescent dynamo.
A Sprague motor.
A 20 horse-power high-speed engine.
A balance dynamometer.

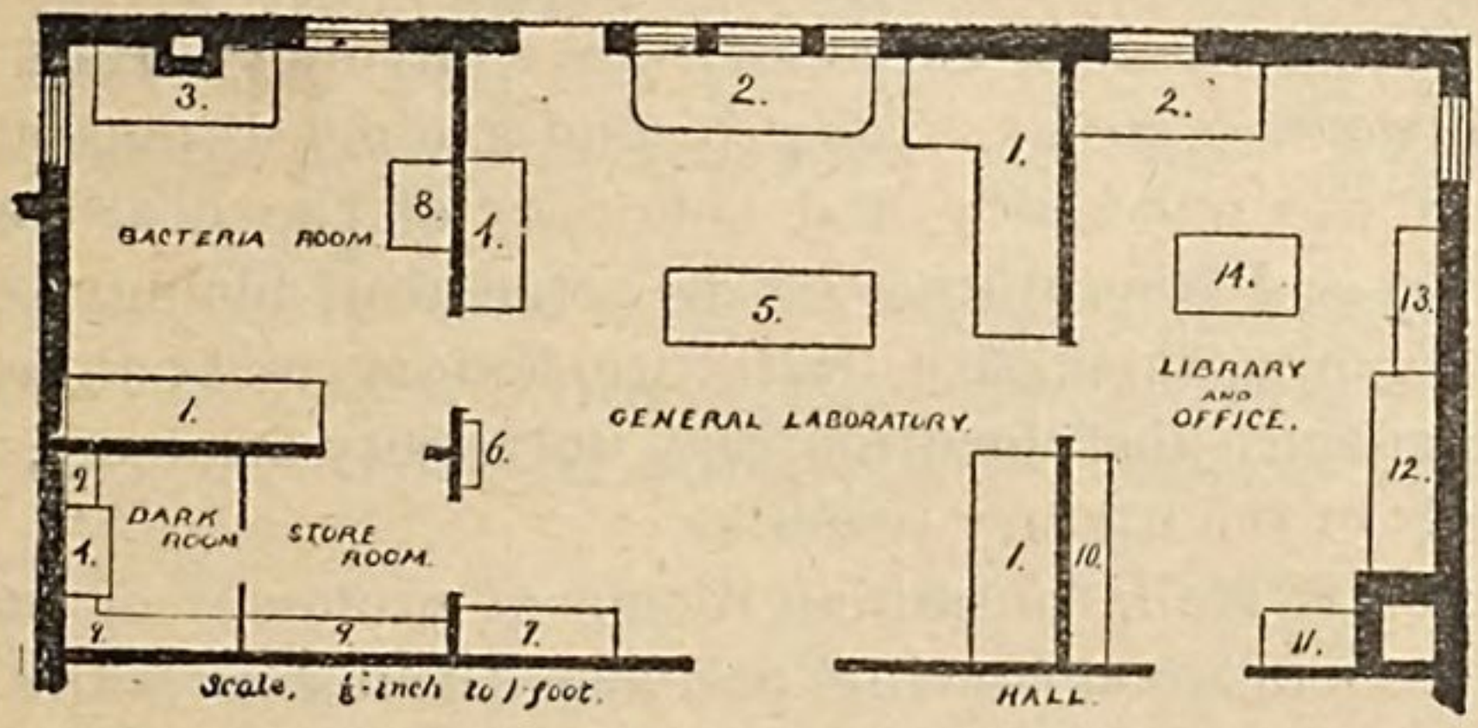
In addition there is a large amount of minor apparatus for the study of electrical problems.



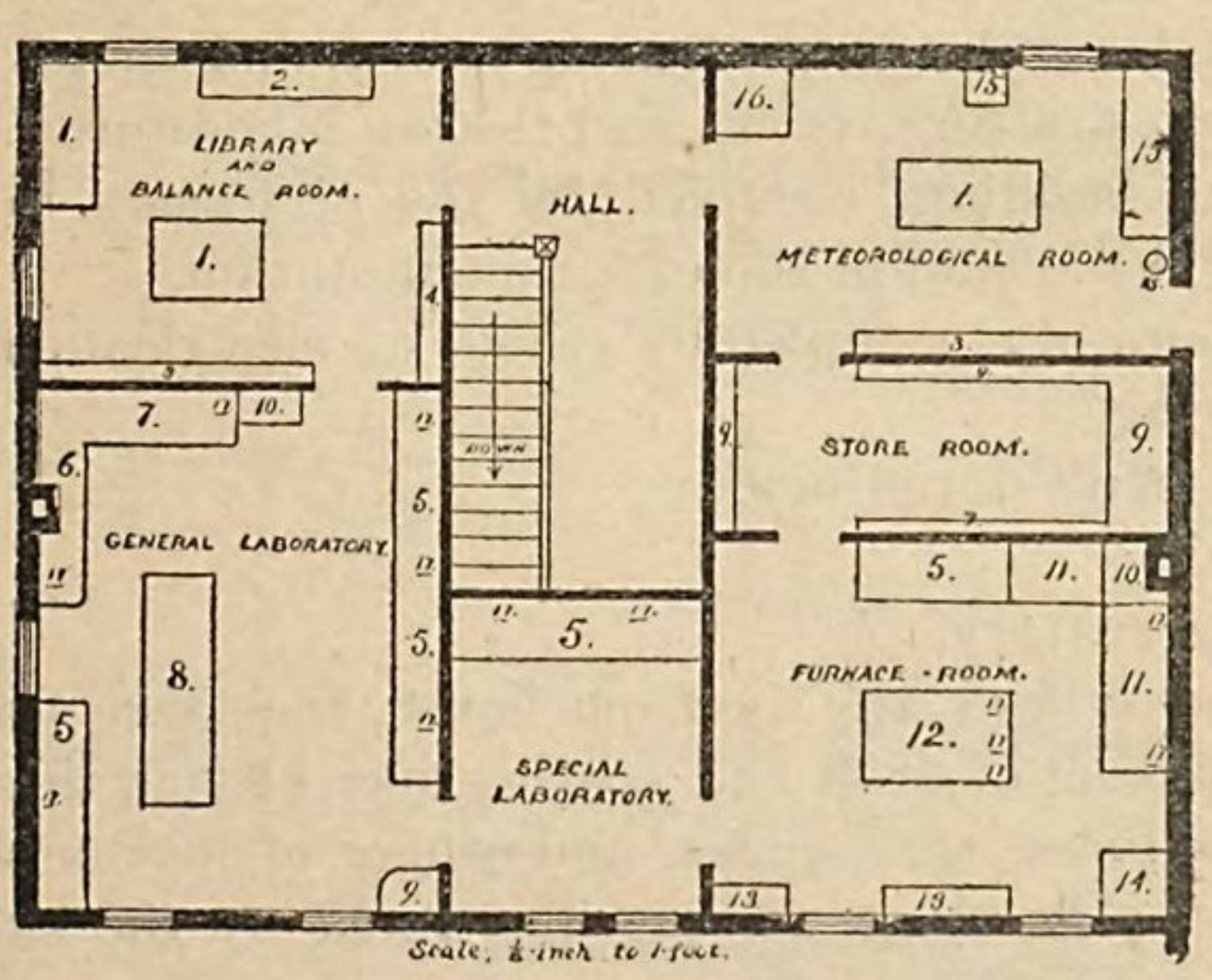
Plan of Second Floor

Industrial art.—The object of this school is, in addition to giving a good general education, to give a practical knowledge of object drawing in outline, light and shade, and color; of linear perspective; of orthographic projection, or the drawing of plans, elevations, and sections; of wood carving or clay modeling, including historical ornament and decorative design.

The appliances of this department are sufficient to meet the demands of the pupils and are of the character usually found in such schools.



Biological Laboratory.



Chemical Laboratory.

Pharmacy.—This department of the university is designed to furnish a thorough training in the art of pharmacy and the fundamental sciences upon which it rests. The course embraces two terms of six months each, beginning on September 18. The instruction is both theoretical and practical, the laboratories being open 25 hours per week.

In addition to the regular instructional work of the undergraduate department, *post-graduate* courses have been provided for resident-graduate students as follows:

In mechanical engineering, leading to the degree of mechanical engineer (M. E.).

In civil engineering, leading to the degree of civil engineer (C. E.).

In chemistry, leading to the degree of analytical chemist (A. C.).
In agriculture, leading to the degree of master of science (M. S.).
In industrial art, leading to the degree of master of science (M. S.).
In literature, leading to the degree of master of science (M. S.).
In history and political economy, leading to the degree of master of science (M. S.).
In mathematics, leading to the degree of master of science (M. S.).
In electricity leading to the degree of master of science (M. S.).
In biology, leading to the degree of master of science (M. S.).

The buildings of the university are University Hall, containing library and reading rooms, biological and geological museum, offices of president of the university and secretary of the board of trustees, lecture rooms and laboratories of department of biology, class rooms for professors of mathematics, literature, history, and political economy, modern languages and elocution, the university academy, the chapel, and the halls of the literary societies.

Industrial Art Hall, containing rooms of professor of industrial art and instructors in wood carving, and also serving as ladies' dormitory.

Chemical laboratory, occupied by the department of chemistry and school of pharmacy.

Mechanical laboratory, containing wood and metal shops, forge rooms, foundry, drafting rooms, and testing laboratories.

Agricultural building, occupied by the professors in the school of agriculture and the staff of the experiment station.

Electric laboratory, occupied by school of electrical engineering and civil engineering.

The young men's dormitory.

Military hall.

Peirce Conservatory.

In addition to these are the farm house, the large stock barn built during the summer of 1889 and costing over $6,000, the engine house, engineer's residence, gas works, and others of less importance. The character of the buildings is best illustrated by the sketches accompanying this article.

The university library, while not large, has been selected with unusual care, and is a working library rather than an immense accumulation of books of doubtful value. For the most part the books have been selected by the heads of the various departments to meet the requirements of their work. In addition to the 6,000 volumes of the library the reading room is furnished with all the more important scientific and literary periodicals, both from at home and abroad.

The enrollment of students for the present year will reach over 500, at least 75 per cent. being matriculates of the college proper. The faculty consists of 24 professors, 6 instructors, and 6 assistants.

The degrees granted are bachelor of science to graduates of schools of science, agriculture, and industrial art.

Bachelor of mechanical engineering to graduates of schools of mechanical and electrical engineering.

Bachelor of civil engineering to graduates of school of civil engineering.

The advanced degrees granted upon satisfactory completion of prescribed courses and submission of approved theses are master of science, mechanical engineer, and civil engineer, respectively.

Graduates from school of pharmacy receive the degree of pharmaceutical graduate. No honorary degrees have been conferred, though no reason for this exists save in the disinclination of the faculty to recommend for degrees those who have not at some time been students of the university.

It will be seen that the work done by Purdue University is of a kind not furnished by any other college in the State, and that it is faithfully endeavoring to fulfill the spirit of the act of Congress which gave it existence.

FACULTY OF PURDUE UNIVERSITY IN 1891.

James H. Smart, LL. D., *President.*
William F. M. Goss, A. M., *Professor of Practical Mechanics.*
Moses C. Stevens, A. M., *Professor of Mathematics.*
Oscar J. Craig, A. M., *Professor of Political Economy and History.*
James Troop, M. S., *Professor of Horticulture and Entomology.*
Arthur L. Green, PH. C., *Professor of Pharmacy.*
Henry A. Huston, A. M., A. C., *Professor of Agricultural Chemistry.*
Mrs. Emma Mont McRae, *Professor of English Literature.*
Joseph C. Arthur, D. SC., *Professor of Vegetable Physiology and Pathology.*
Alfred E. Phillips, C. E., *Professor of Civil Engineering.*
Stanley Coulter, A. M., PH. D., *Professor of Biology.*
William H. P. Creighton, U. S. N., *Professor of Mechanical Engineering.*
Anna Von Holland, *Professor of Modern Languages.*
Ernest Knaufft, *Professor of Industrial Art.*
Horace E. Stockbridge, PH. D., *Professor of Agriculture.*
Albert P. Carmen, D. SC., *Professor of Physics and Applied Electricity.*
Winthrop E. Stone, PH. D., *Professor of Organic and Inorganic Chemistry.*
Erastus Test, A. M., M. D., *Principal of Preparatory Department.*
Mrs. Emma P. Ewing, *Professor of Domestic Economy.*
Theries D. Hinebauch, M. S., V. S., *Professor of Veterinary Science.*
Bertha A. Reynolds, *Instructor in Elocution.*
Michael Golden, *Instructor in Wood-shop and Foundry.*
William P. Turner, *Instructor in Forging and Machine Work.*
Abner Pickering, U. S. A., *Professor of Military Science and Tactics and Assistant Instructor in Mathematics.*
George Spitzer, PH. G., *Instructor in Pharmacy.*
Otto G. Zerse, PH. C., *Special Lecturer in Materia Medica.*
Anna E. Baker, B. S., *Instructor in Wood Carving.*

Dumont Lotz, B. S., *Assistant in Chemical Laboratory.*
Kate Wentz, B. S., *Assistant Instructor in Mathematics.*
Henry L. Bolley, M. S., *Assistant Instructor in Biology.*
William J. Lutz, M. S., *Assistant Instructor in Physics and Military Tactics.*
L. J. Stabler, *Assistant Instructor in Pharmacy.*
Jacob M. Sholl, B. M. E., *Assistant Instructor in Wood-shop.*
William H. Wells, B. M. E., *Assistant Instructor in Wood-shop.*
Winthrop K. Howe, B. M. E., *Assistant Instructor in Shop.*
L. D. Swan, *Librarian.*

The station staff is composed as follows:
Horace E. Stockbridge, PH. D., *Director.*
William C. Latta, M. S., *Agriculturist.*
James Troop, M. S., *Horticulturist.*
Henry A. Huston, A. M., A. C., *Chemist.*
J. C. Arthur, M. S., D. SC., *Botanist.*
Francis M. Webster, *U. S. Department Entomology, Entomologist.*
T. D. Hinebaugh, M. S., D. V. S., *Veterinarian.*
Arthur Goss, A. C., *Assistant Station Chemist.*
Pierre Van Landeghem, *Florist.*

CHAPTER VIII.

INDIANA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.[1]

The State Normal School of Indiana is located at Terre Haute, Vigo County. To secure the location of the school the city of Terre Haute gave the grounds which the building occupies, and supplemented the legislative appropriation for erecting and furnishing the building, by a donation of $50,000, and obligated itself to pay one-half the necessary expenses for repairs from year to year. The school is a State institution. Aside from the donations stated the institution was organized, and is wholly maintained, at the expense of the State. The school is managed by a president and faculty elected by a board of trustees. The trustees are appointed by the Governor, except the State superintendent of public instruction, who is *ex officio* a member.

The act which created the institution clearly defines its object in the following language: "There shall be established and maintained, as hereinafter provided, a State normal school, the object of which shall be the preparation of teachers for teaching in the common schools of Indiana." It was thus declared to be a school for the professional training of teachers. This object has never been lost sight of. From the passage of this act in 1865 to the present day the normal school has sought by all means at its command to develop and perfect itself as a professional institution. It is not a school for general culture and education in the ordinary sense. It was created, has been supported, and now exists as a professional school for teachers. Only those are admitted who desire to qualify themselves to be teachers and who promise to teach, if practicable, in the common schools of Indiana for a period equal to twice that spent as students in the school. To be admitted, males must be 18 and females 16 years of age. Under the law, a stated appropriation of $22,000 is made for the support of the institution and this has been supplemented of late years by special allowances to meet the growing demands of the school. The school was opened in January, 1870, since which time it has enrolled about 5,500 students, and has at the present an average term attendance of about 450.

There are three classes of students whose needs the Normal School undertakes to meet. The first class consists of young men and women who have simply a common-school education. They have studied under fair instruction the eight branches required by law to be taught in the common schools of the State. Many of these are persons of excel-

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[1] By President W. W. Parsons.

lent ability, and have had more or less experience as teachers in the country schools. They come mainly from the farm, and possess habits of regularity, persistence, and industry which are of the utmost value to them as students. This class of students are required to pursue a regular three or four years' course, which embraces, in addition to an extended range of academic study, thorough instruction and drill in all phases of professional work.

The second class is composed of graduates of the leading high schools of the State, and others of equal scholarship.

These receive a formal credit of one year on the course. They are excused from the study of such subjects as they have pursued in the high school, and of which they are found to possess a good academic knowledge. They are required to study all the professional subjects in the course, together with the common school and other branches of which they do not possess a teacher's working knowledge.

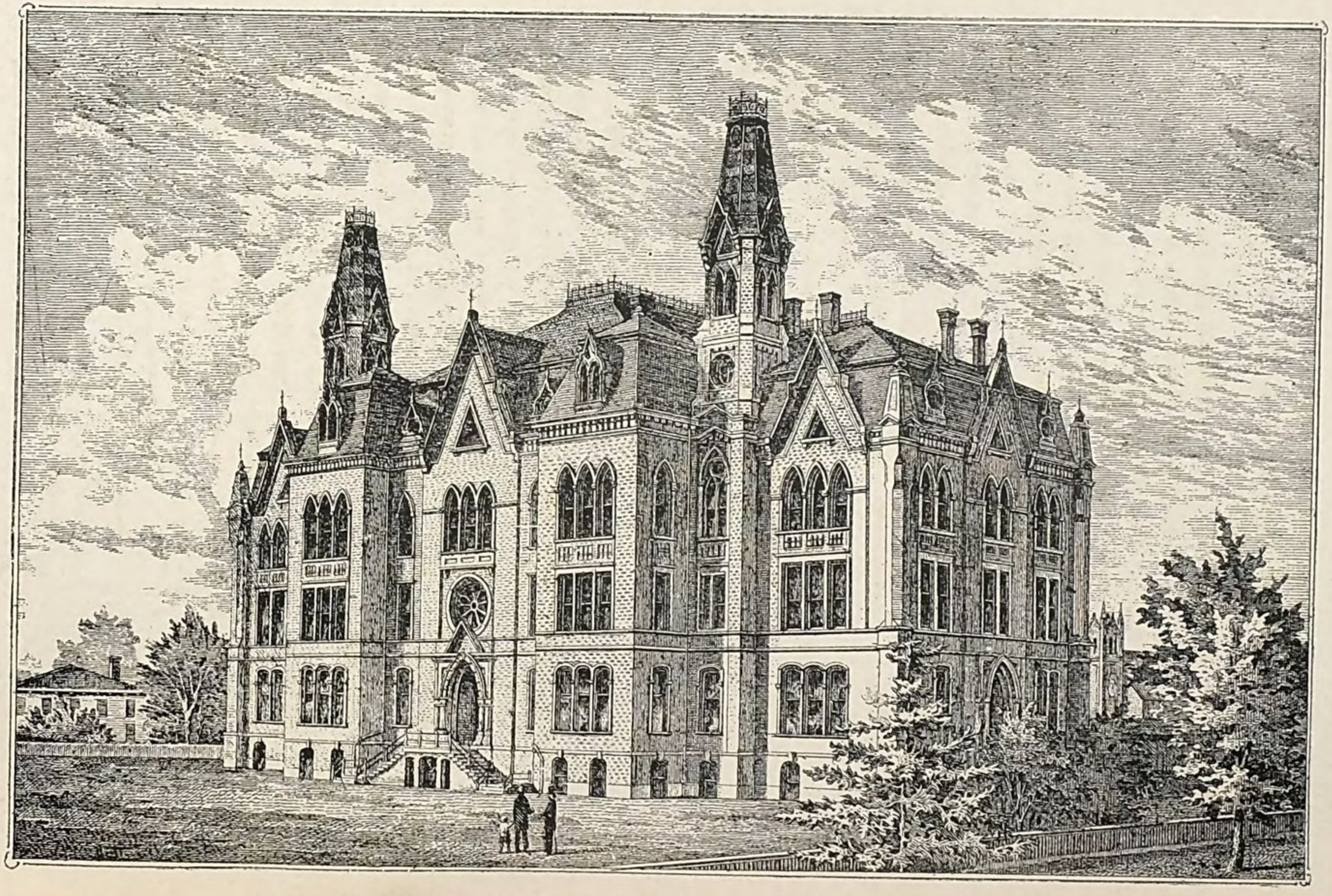
The third class is made up of graduates of colleges and others of equivalent scholarship. They possess a range of general scholarship entirely superior to either of the other classes named, but have made no special or professional preparation for teaching. Receiving a credit of three years on the course of study, they are subjected to one year's instruction in all the phases of professional work done in the institution. In other words, the course of study for college graduates is a strictly professional field of work.

To each of these classes certificates of graduation are given on the completion of the course, and at the end of two years' successful teaching after graduation, diplomas are granted, which, by law of the State, are a life license to teach in Indiana.

The following statement, taken from the last annual catalogue, presents quite fully the general object and methods of the school.

On the 20th of December, 1864, it was enacted by the general assembly of Indiana "that there shall be established and maintained, as hereinafter provided, a State Normal School, the object of which shall be the preparation of teachers for teaching in the common schools of Indiana." This statute clearly defines the object of the State Normal School. Its sole function is the preparation of teachers for the State. It is distinctly a professional school. Its central idea is to confer that knowledge which constitutes the science of education, and to train students in the art of instruction and school management. Its leading aim is to give that knowledge and training which belong as distinctively to the teacher as does the science of medicine to the physician or the science of law to the legal practitioner. A school is a normal school, in the sense contemplated in the statute quoted, only when it makes these its controlling ends. That the State Normal School may be held to its one object as a professional institution, only those are admitted to its privileges who intend to prepare for the work of the schoolroom.

By what means does it seek to give that preparation? The answer may be made as follows:



No. 7.—STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TERRE HAUTE. DESTROYED BY FIRE, APRIL 9, 1888.

I. It seeks to lead the pupil to acquire a thorough, scientific knowledge of the branches he is to teach. This knowledge is the prime condition of any success in the schoolroom. The teacher's instruction in a given subject can never rise above his own knowledge of that subject. No knowledge of methods of instruction, however excellent in themselves, no fund of general information, however accurate and extensive, can be substituted for the specific and thorough knowledge of the subjects which the individual is required to teach. He must at least know these. General culture and information will greatly augment the teaching power of one already possessing the requisite knowledge of what is to be taught, as will also correct methods of instruction; but these are auxiliaries to, not substitutes for, a definite understanding of the matter of instruction. The teacher must himself know that which the pupils are expected to acquire under his tuition. His mastery of these subjects must be thorough and complete. Other things equal, he is the best teacher of a subject who has the most thorough and complete knowledge of it. Not only must the teacher be conversant with the facts of the various branches he teaches, but he must know these in their logical connections. It is only thus that they form a subject of study. The facts of arithmetic, for example, constitute the science of arithmetic only when viewed in the necessary relations that exist among the facts themselves. Knowledge proper is to be distinguished from mere information. The latter is the knowledge of facts, as facts, *i. e.*, in their isolation; the former is the comprehension of facts in their organic connections. Information is not education. A mass of information systematized by thinking it under the relations which inhere among the facts and principles themselves becomes knowledge, and as such has great educational value. The instruction in the various branches of study in the common schools must result in this latter form of knowledge. This alone confers real power upon the pupil. Many persons, under the usual tests, show a fair degree of familiarity with the subject matter of this or that branch of learning; but when required to *think* the subject as a system, independent of a text-book treatment of it, they are found to possess no adequate, coherent knowledge of it. It is a necessary part of a teacher's knowledge that he shall have thought the facts of the various subjects of instruction into a coherent and systematic whole. While such a knowledge as this is the only true one for any educational purpose, it is preëminently the teacher's view. Nothing less than this orderly knowledge of the subject will suffice for the teacher. As a primary requirement, then, the normal school seeks to ground its students thoroughly in the knowledge of the branches required to be taught in the common schools of the State.

II. As a second element of a teacher's preparation for the work of the schoolroom, the normal school endeavors to give its students a knowledge of the nature, processes, laws, and products of the human mind. Mind is the subject of the educating process. The teacher is

in the presence of from 35 to 50 children from 5 to 6 hours per day. It is his function, as teacher, to train and develop each of these individual minds; to strengthen them in every correct power and habit of thought; to purify and chasten their feelings, and to present such motives as will tend to the discarding of all bad habits of body and mind, and to the formation of good ones. To train a faculty or power of mind it must be exercised upon its proper objects, and in accordance with the laws of its nature. Exercise is the condition of mental growth. But mental activity, without the guidance of a rational end, and not in obedience to the proper laws of the faculty exercised, may produce a distorted and abnormal growth.

The human mind, in its natural and leading forms of activity, with their conditions, laws, and products, bears a relation to the art of teaching similar to that of the bodily nature and functions to the physician's art. For the teacher to attempt to pursue his art, with all its complicated and responsible duties, without a clear knowledge of the processes and laws of mind, is hardly less irrational than would be the practice of medicine without an adequate knowledge of the principal organs of the body and their laws and functions. Moreover, the teacher's method of instruction, if based upon reason or principles, and not derived from mere authority and experiment, must spring largely from the study of mind. The mind is to be educated. The instruments of the process are the various subjects of study. These two, then—mind and matter of study—must be the main factors in a rational or scientific method of instruction. In this thought the study of mind in all its manifestations occupies a prominent place in the course of study in the normal school. The effort is made to study mind itself, in its conditions, activities, laws, and results. Too often the study of mental science is made the mere learning of text without verification by appeal to individual and personal mental experience. The true method of pursuing this subject is by introspection, using the text mainly as a guide. For the teacher's purpose it must be chiefly a direct study of mind. It is only in this way that the study of mental science can become an efficient aid to the teacher.

It must ever be admitted and emphasized that knowledge of the subject is of the first importance to whoever would teach the subject. The teacher must know that which he is to teach. Nevertheless, it is probably true that more failures in the schoolroom are due to ignorance of child nature than to any other cause. The chief weakness in the public schools to-day is on the side of mind, not ignorance of subjects. Knowledge of motives, conditions, processes, and laws of mind activity is the key to scientific instruction, and it is not held by the majority of teachers.

III. But the teacher's preparation must include more than the knowledge of the branches to be taught and the nature and operations of mind. It is all-important that the teacher have clear and correct ideas

as to the true ends of the educating process. His theory of education, *i. e.*, his views concerning the main results to be accomplished by the process, will go far toward determining the spirit and methods of the school in all its work. If the teacher regards the informing of the mind as his chief work, this view will manifest itself in all he does. If to him the prevailing aim of the school is to lead the pupil to acquire a large fund of systematic knowledge, receiving such training of the intellectual faculties as the acquisition of this incidentally and necessarily gives, this theory will in a great degree determine the character of the work done in the school. If the teacher holds information and systematized knowledge, valuable and important as they are, to be necessary means only, and the quickening and unfolding of all the intellectual, moral, and spiritual faculties to be the abiding aims of the school, the instruction given and the discipline administered will look to this end. The normal school holds that character and power are above learning. While in nowise underestimating or depreciating the value of knowledge, it yet teaches that the ultimate outcome of all school work must be the individual with trained powers of intellect, acute moral perceptions and sentiments, a will trained in the habit of obedience to the right, and a reverential spirit. The man or woman rounded and trained in every natural capacity must be the aim of the school. The correct theory of the school is sought to be imparted by a study of the training schools in their actual work, by an extended study of the history and science of education, and by the method of performing the daily class work in all departments.

IV. If in a fair degree fitted by natural aptitude for the work of instructing and managing a school, a person trained in a thorough knowledge of the subjects he is to teach, possessing a theoretical knowledge of mental activities and laws, and grounded in a correct theory of education, will ultimately succeed in the schoolroom. The problem now is how to reduce the period of actual experiment to the minimum. The person who has made the threefold preparation indicated is prepared for two phases of work which should precede his taking charge of a school, namely, (1) the study of methods of instruction, and (2) a period of actual practice, under competent direction, in instructing and governing schools. To these two lines of work the normal school gives great prominence. It has a department of methods and a system of training or practice schools. Both of these are under the supervision and direction of the teacher of methods. In the first, sufficient instruction is given to enable the student to employ his knowledge of the subject and of mind in determining a rational method of procedure for teaching the subject.

Special attention is given to methods of primary instruction, since in the lower grades the foundations of knowledge are laid, and the immature mind has less power to seize and assimilate knowledge not skillfully presented. The schools for observation and practice include all

grades below the high school. They are in charge of competent critic teachers, and the instruction given in them is in harmony with the theories of education taught in the normal school. Students are required to observe and interpret the work of the practice schools during the time they are receiving instruction in methods, and, in the later stages of the course of instruction, they are required to spend a considerable period in actual teaching in each of these schools, under the criticism of both the regular critic teacher and the teacher of methods. They are thus enabled to leave the school possessing a fair degree of skill in the instruction and management of classes attained by actual experience.

The State Normal School, then, undertakes to fulfill the purpose of its organization by (1) leading the student to acquire a thorough knowledge of the branches required to be taught, the professional aspects of the subject receiving attention during this study; (2) giving a comprehensive knowledge of mind; (3) the study of the history and science of education, and (4) a system of instruction in methods, and an extended period of observation and actual teaching in the training schools connected with the institution.

These have been the ideas upon which the institution was founded. Its presidents and instructors from the beginning have directed it upon this line of thought.[1]

The following are its present courses of study:

ENGLISH COURSE.[2]

First year:				
First term	Theory	Penmanship one-half term; Reading.	Arithmetic ...	Grammar.
Second term ...	Methods in Reading and Number.	Reading	....do	Do.
Third term	Mental Science	Mathematical and Physical Geography.	Physiology ...	United States History.
Second year:				
Fourth term ...	....do	Physical and Political Geography, with Map Drawing.	Composition ..	Do.
Fifth term	Methods in Grammar, Geography, and Composition.	Drawing	Chemistry	General History.

[1] William W. Parsons, the president, graduated from the State Normal School with the first class in 1872. He taught a country school in Illinois the following year. He was teacher of mathematics and literature in Indianapolis from 1874 to 1876; was professor of English and rhetoric in the State Normal School from 1876 to 1881; he was transferred to the chair of history for the years 1881 to 1883, and reoccupied the chair of English from 1883 to 1885. In the latter year he was elected president and professor of the science and history of education. He has contributed many articles to educational journals, and read many papers before educational bodies, chiefly in the line of literature, mental science, and the science of education.

[2] One term of vocal music is required, and may be taken as an extra study at any stage of the course.

ENGLISH COURSE—Continued.

Second year—Cont.				
Sixth term.....	Practice	Physics.....	Algebra	General History one-half term; Rhetoric one-half term.
Third year:				
Seventh term..	....do	....do	....do	Literature.
Eighth term ...	History of Education .	Astronomy or Geology.	Geometry.....	Advanced Composition.
Ninth term	Science of Education .	Botany	....do	Graduating Thesis.

ENGLISH AND LATIN COURSE.[1]

First year:				
First term	Theory	Penmanship one-half term; Reading.	Arithmetic ...	Grammar.
Second term ...	Methods in Reading and Number.	Reading	....do	Do.
Third term	Mental Science	Geography	Physiology ...	United States History.
Second year:				
Fourth term...	....do	....do	Composition ..	Do.
Fifth term	Methods in Geography, Grammar, and Composition.	Drawing.....	Latin	General History.
Sixth term.....	Latin	Physics.....	Rhetoric.....	Do.
Third year:				
Seventh term ..	Practice	....do	Latin	Literature.
Eighth term ...	....do	Latin	Algebra	Advanced Composition.
Ninth term	History of Education.	Chemistry, Astronomy or geology.	....do	Latin.
Fourth year:				
Tenth term	Science of Education	Biology.....	Geometry.....	Do.
Eleventh term	....do	Botany	....do	Do.
Twelfth term..	Moral Science.....	Zoölogy.....	Trigonometry.	Latin, Graduating Thesis.

[1] One term of vocal music is required, and may be taken as an extra study at any stage of the course.

COURSE FOR COLLEGE GRADUATES.

First term.....	Science of Education .	Methods in Reading and Number.	Mental Science (Intellect).	Theory.
Second term	....do	Practice in Training Schools.	....do	Methods in Geography, Grammar, and Composition.
Third term	History of Education.	....do	Mental Science (Feeling and Will).	Elective.

CHAPTER IX.

ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.[1]

HISTORICAL.

The Rose Polytechnic Institute is devoted to the higher education of young men in engineering, including under this term all those productive and constructive arts by which the forces of nature are made subservient to the needs of man, and the principles which underlie those arts. Its courses of instruction include the principles and practice of engineering, with special reference to mechanical engineering, civil engineering, chemistry, and the applications of electricity.[2]

It owes its existence to the munificence of the late Chauncey Rose, of Terre Haute.

Born in Connecticut, of Scotch ancestry, near the end of the last century, Mr. Rose at an early age came to what was then known as "the Northwest Territory," reaching Vigo County, Indiana, early in 1818, and becoming a resident of Terre Haute, just then laid out, and consisting at that time of but two cabins.

Being a man of indomitable will, perseverance, and energy, and of uncompromising integrity, his success in the new settlement was assured from the beginning. He interested himself in the growing commerce of the country, and particularly in the building of its railroads and the development of its natural resources.

Throughout his whole life, and especially during his later years, he exhibited a warm sympathy for young people who were forced to struggle against adverse fortune without having been properly equipped by previous education and training, and he made many and liberal gifts to aid such.

Out of his interest in this direction was undoubtedly developed a desire to devote a large part of his accumulated wealth to the establishment of a technical school, in which young men might receive such a

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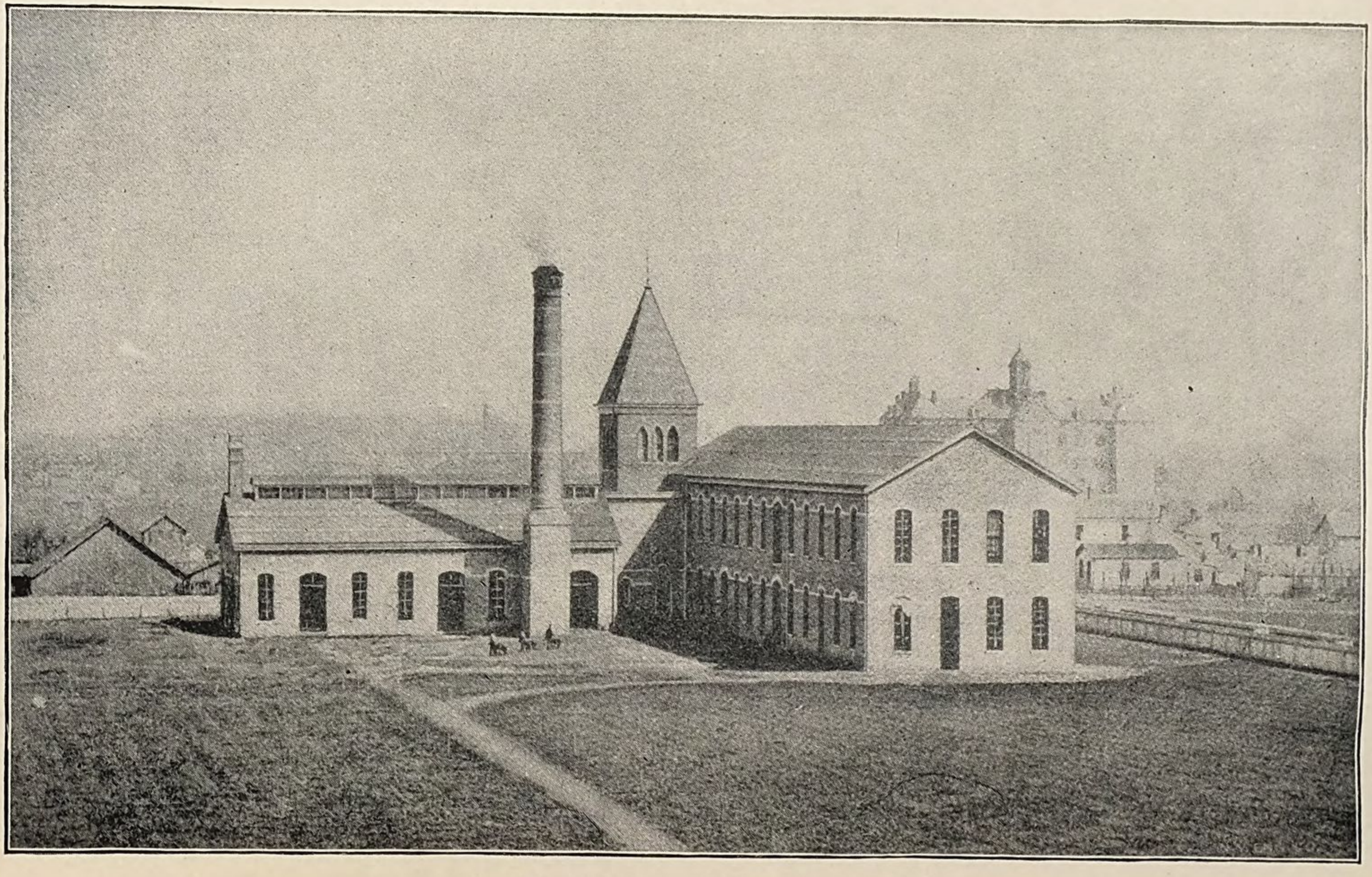
[1] By Ex-President T. C. Mendenhall.

[2] Dr. Henry Turner Eddy, the successor of President Mendenhall, was born at Stoughton, Mass., in 1844; graduated from Yale College in 1867, from Sheffield Scientific School in 1868; received the degrees A. M. from Yale in 1870, C. E. and PH. D. from Cornell University in 1870–72. He was engaged in teaching mathematics and civil engineering in the University of Tennessee and Cornell University from 1868 to 1873, and was professor of mathematics and civil engineering in the University of Cincinnati 1874–90. Dr. Eddy has published many papers in journals of mathematics and engineering.



No. 9.—ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: MACHINE SHOPS.

training as would fit them for an active and self-sustaining participation in the work of the world.

After seeking advice from his confidential friends and from those who, in virtue of their long connection with educational work, were competent to advise, this desire was crystallized as to a definitive plan, and the proposed school was incorporated in 1874 under the name of Terre Haute School of Industrial Science.

Associated with Mr. Rose, as constituting the first board of managers, were Messrs. Josephus Collett, Firmin Nippert, Charles R. Peddle, Barnabas C. Hobbs, William A. Jones, Demas Deming, Ray G. Jenckes, Gen. Charles Cruft, and Col. William K. Edwards.

Many of these gentlemen were the trusted friends and business associates of Mr. Rose, and all were in thorough sympathy with the movement which he had inaugurated. During the first few years following the incorporation of the institute considerable progress was made towards the erection of the principal buildings.

The corner stone of what is known as the "academic building" was laid with imposing ceremonies on the 11th of September, 1875, and on the same day the board of managers amended the articles of incorporation, changing the name of the association to the "Rose Polytechnic Institute." This was done in spite of the earnest protest of the venerable founder, but in accordance with the unanimous desire of his fellow managers and of the entire community of his fellow citizens.

On the 2d of June, 1877, Mr. Rose tendered his resignation as a member of the board of managers on account of his failing health, and on the 13th of August of the same year he died, at the age of 81 years.

Previous to his death Mr. Rose had transferred to the institute board properties and securities amounting to several hundred thousand dollars. In his will, in addition to the large bequests establishing the "Rose Orphans' Home" and other extensive charities, he made a special bequest to the institute, and at the same time constituted it the residuary legatee of his estate.

The aggregate of his donations to the school considerably exceeds half a million dollars.

In order that the expenses of completing the erection of shops, laboratory, etc., and the expenses of equipment, which would necessarily be heavy under the scheme adopted, might not make too great a draft upon the principal, the managers wisely allowed the interest of the fund to accumulate for several years before the doors of the institute were opened to pupils and a faculty of instructors appointed. In the year 1882 active preparations were made for the real beginning of the work of the school.

For the very important position of president of the institute the managers were fortunate in securing Dr. Charles O. Thompson, who for many years had served as principal of the Worcester Free Institute, at Worcester, Mass. Dr. Thompson was widely and well known as one of

the pioneers in technical education in this country, and in accepting the direct management of the new institution he brought to the work not only a successful experience of many years but an enthusiastic faith in its future, and a skill as an organizer by which he was singularly fitted for the administration of the trust committed to him. Under his direction the organization of the institute was completed, and in March, 1883, a class of about 25 students was admitted, selected from a number of applicants, and the real work of the Rose Polytechnic Institute began.

Another class was admitted in September of the same year, and in 1884 some advanced students, who had partially completed their studies elsewhere, entered to be graduated as the first class in 1885.

In the spring of 1885 the institute suffered a most serious loss in the untimely death of Dr. Thompson, which occurred just as he was beginning to see the results of his labors in directing its organization. Fortunately for its interests the members of the faculty which he had gathered about him had caught much of his enthusiasm and spirit in the work, and under their direction, assisted whenever possible by the board of managers, the institute continued to flourish with increasing numbers of students, and in the autumn of 1886 Dr. T. C. Mendenhall, of Washington, D. C., was elected as his successor. Dr. Mendenhall was Professor of Physics in Ohio State University, at Columbus, Ohio, from its organization in 1873 to 1878, and again from 1881 to 1884. He was Professor of Physics in the Imperial University of Japan, at Tokio, from 1878 to 1881. He served as a member of the U. S. Signal Service Corps, at Washington, D. C., from 1884 to 1886. He is a member of the National Academy of Sciences and various other scientific bodies, and at present is the president of the "American Association for the Advancement of Science." He has made many contributions to various scientific journals, mostly in the direction of physics.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION.

BOARD OF MANAGERS.

Josephus Collett, esq., *President.*
Charles R. Peddle, esq., *Secretary.*
Demas Deming, esq., *Treasurer.*
Leslie D. Thomas, esq.
Hon. William Mack.
Preston Hussey, esq.
Hon. Richard W. Thompson, LL. D.
William C. Ball, A. M.

FACULTY OF INSTRUCTION.

T. C. Mendenhall,[1] PH. D., LL. D., *President, and Professor of Physics.*
Charles S. Brown, PH. B., *Superintendent of Machine Shop and Instructor in Machine Design.*
William L. Ames, B. S., *Professor of Drawing.*
Clarence A. Waldo, A. M., *Professor of Mathematics.*
James A. Wickersham, A. M., *Professor of Languages.*
William A. Noyes, PH. D., *Professor of Chemistry.*
Malverd A. Howe, C. E., *Professor of Civil Engineering.*
Carl Leo Mees, M. D., *Professor of Physics.*
Thomas Gray, B. SC., F. R. S. E., *Professor of Dynamic Engineering.*
William H. Kirchner, B. S., *Junior Professor of Drawing.*
Clarence A. Waldo, A. M., *Librarian.*
Mrs. S. P. Burton, *Registrar.*
Miss Hannah F. Smith, *Assistant Librarian.*
James H. Sherman, *Foreman of Wood Room.*
Garrett W. Logan, *Foreman of Machine Shop.*
Thomas O'Loughlin, *Instructor in Forging and Tool-making.*
H. W. Dickinson, *Instructor in Foundry Work.*
Benjamin Grosvenor, *Instructor in Boiler and Engine Management.*

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION.

Those who are actively engaged in the practice of engineering are generally agreed that every young man who is in training for an engineer should acquire familiarity with the practical side of his profession; especially that mechanical engineers should understand the use of tools and machinery and should possess a certain degree of manual dexterity. In this school the acquisition of this practical knowledge on the part of the student neither precedes nor follows his training in the principles of engineering, but is contemporaneous with it. His study of principles is supplemented by weekly practice in the shop or the field, where these principles are applied, and his entrance upon the life of an engineer is an expansion of his course of study rather than an abrupt transition to a new mode of life. The problems with which he deals during his school life are similar in character to those with which he will have to do after entering upon his professional career. The usually assumed differences between practice and theory are shown to have no real existence and the student is made to understand that good practice must always be in accord with correct theory.

Such a scheme of instruction implies and demands extensive and expensive material equipments, without which it would be impossible to carry it out. In the Rose Polytechnic Institute it is believed an adequate equipment has been provided.

In mechanics this includes extensive shops, furnishing ample facilities for working in wood with both hand and machine tools, and for

[1] Resigned in 1889; succeeded by Dr. Henry T. Eddy.

metal work, including molding and casting, forging and machine work of the most extensive character.

In the equipment of these shops, excluding the cost of the buildings, more than $40,000 has been expended.

Among other things may be mentioned thirty-six benches equipped with complete sets of carpenters' tools, a variety of wood-turning lathes, circular saws, jig and band saws, molding machine, planers and boring machines for working in wood.

In the machine shop will be found a variety of lathes, planers, milling machines, gear-cutting machines, shaping machines, drills, etc., many of which are of large dimensions and all representing the best types of such machinery, and in addition a large collection of chucks, reamers, standard gauges, squares, surface plates, and a full equipment of smaller tools.

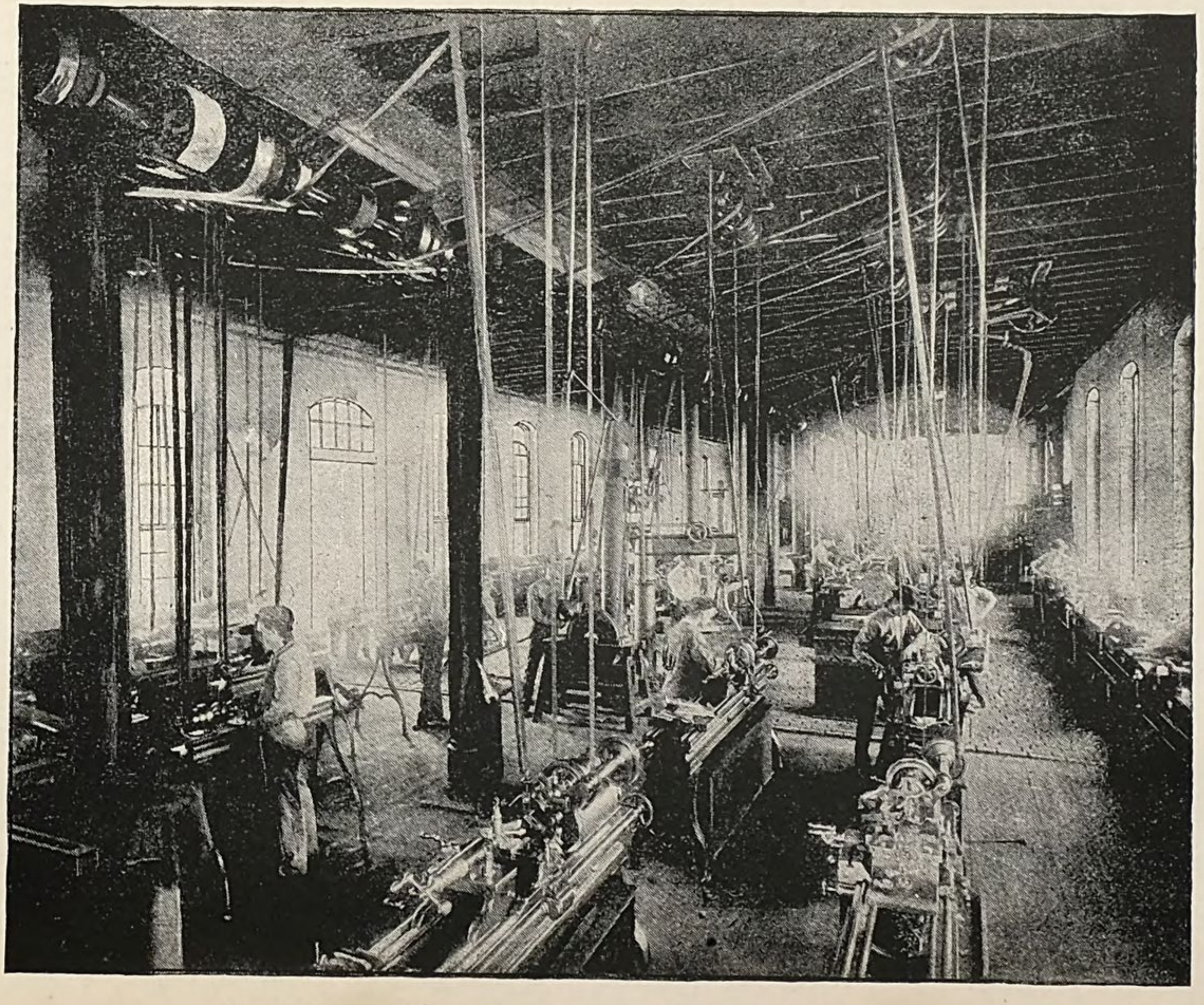
The forges are furnished with power blast and complete sets of tools, and the foundry is also properly equipped. Power is furnished for the whole by a 40-horse-power Brown engine, which serves the double purpose of a motor and a piece of apparatus. It has a variable cut-off with four independent slide valves and represents the best American workmanship.

For laboratory work in engineering some of the best apparatus and appliances are now at hand and the collection is constantly increasing. Among others may be mentioned the steam engine with complete arrangements for taking indicator cards under widely varying conditions; steam engine indicators; an absorption dynamometer, a transmission dynamometer, and a Bracket Cradle dynamometer for dynamo, electric motor, or other machine work; two testing machines for studying the strength of materials, one of which has a capacity of 100,000 pounds; an accurate dividing engine, a comparator, standard bars, a strong and sensitive balance, thermometers, an electric chronograph, micrometer gauges, speed counters, and speed indicators, etc.

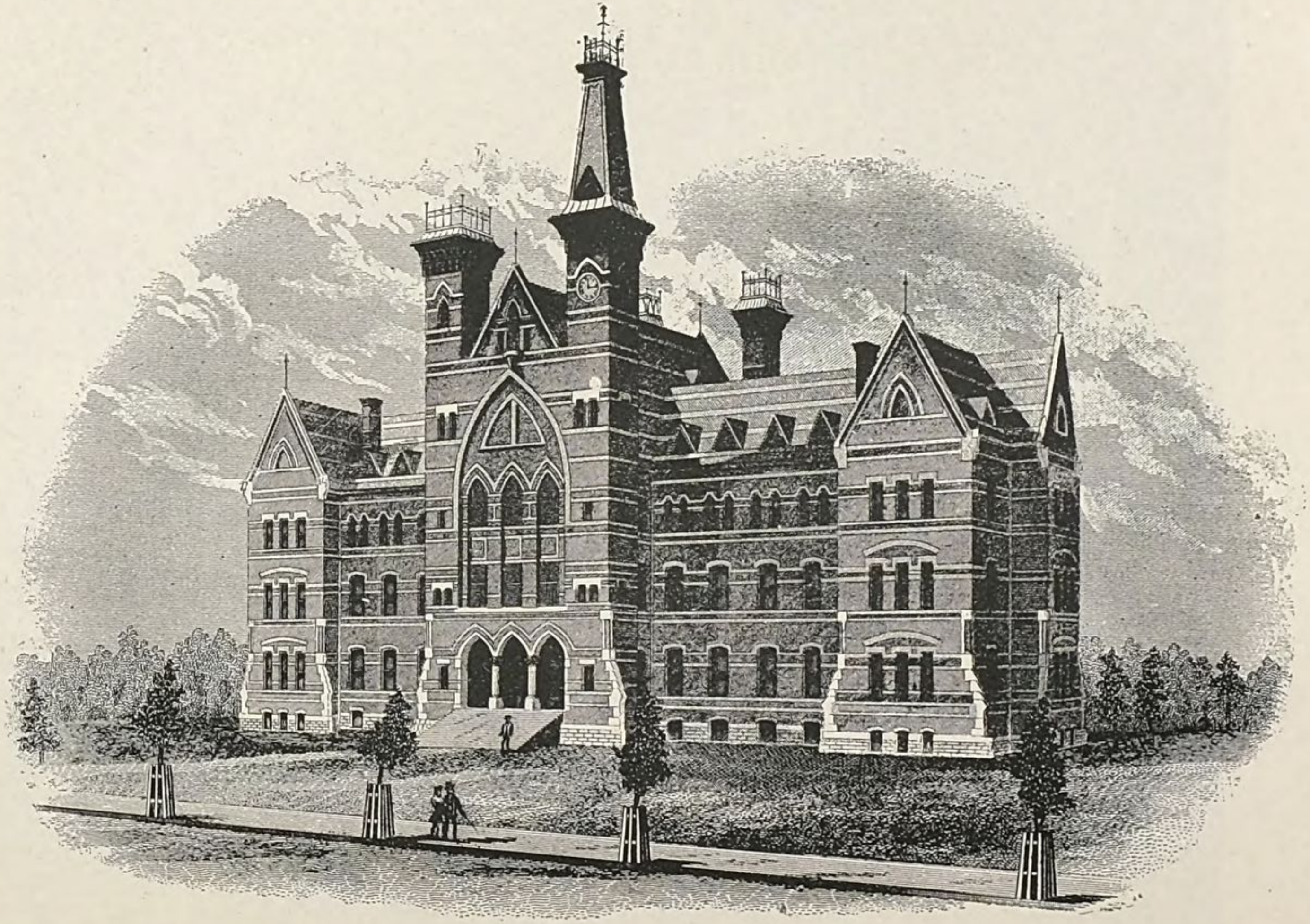
The principle which underlies the scheme for utilizing these school shops is that machinery is to have a constantly increasing share in the conversion of matter into a useful form.

The educated engineer must understand the practical limits of mechanical production and all the possible ways in which those limits can be extended. He must know by practice how to design, construct, and assemble the parts of a machine as well as how to finish its product by skillful handicraft, and he should also know how to make his tools. The power of an engineer to decide, upon general grounds, the best form and material for a machine, and to calculate its parts, is vastly increased by blending with it the skill of the craftsman in manipulating the material.

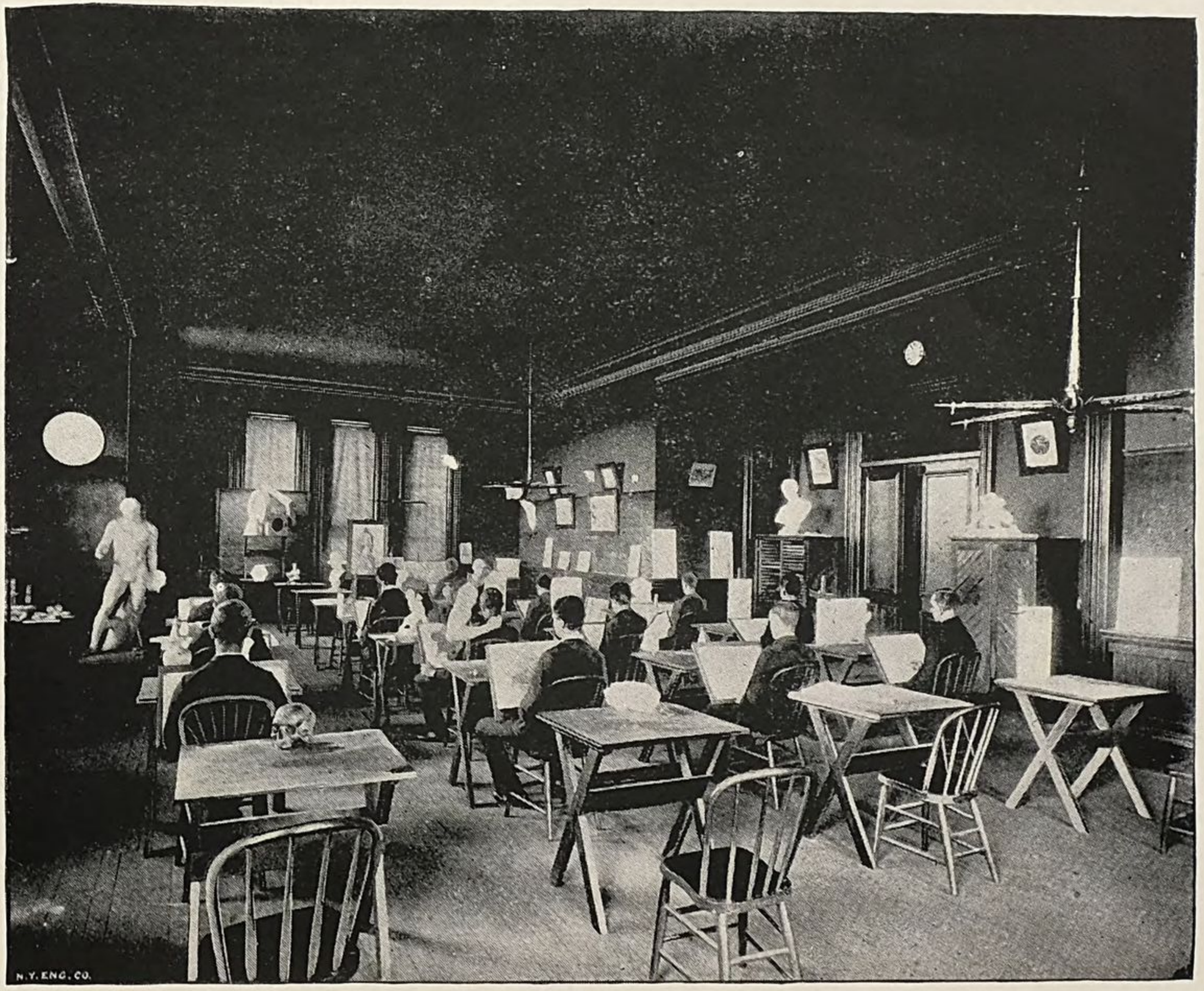
The scheme of practice in operation comprehends, however, more than the cultivation of mere skill in handicraft; it includes the development of constructive power. In the earlier stages of his work the



No. 12.—ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: MACHINE SHOP; INTERIOR VIEW.



No. 8.—ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: ACADEMIC BUILDING.



No. 10.—ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: FREE-HAND DRAWING ROOM.

student acquires facility in the uses of tools and machinery in the making of some of the simpler elements of a machine or the parts of a useful product. At a later period these parts are assembled and the machine is completed, being subjected to severe tests as to the harmony and adaptation of its various parts. In this process the standard of excellence is never lower than that of the best manufacturing establishments. The commercial value of these products is kept out of sight in planning the practice of the student, whatever is best adapted to the successful development of skill being utilized. But constructive power is of a higher order than that of skill in handicraft and is of relatively greater value to the mechanical engineer. For this reason it is believed to be important to cultivate this power by shaping the practice work of each student so that it shall lead, before the course is finished, to the completion of a variety of mechanical products, of themselves of real commercial value.

The school shops are purely educational in their character and the rapid progress which is made in them is largely due to the fact that students come to their shopwork with the perceptive faculties, the reason, the judgment, and the taste all under constant and careful training in other departments of the school.

In a general way the plan of instruction in all of the departments of the institute is in accord with that indicated above, the central idea of which is that nothing is lost but much is gained by an intimate intermingling of theory and practice.

The knowledge acquired through the use of the text-book, the recitation, the lecture, and the library becomes in a much greater degree the personal property of the student by being submitted to the test of the workshop, the laboratory, and the field.

The material appliances for instruction in other departments is also commensurate with those of the school shop.

The department of civil engineering possesses a variety of the best instruments for field and office work.

The drawing department occupies several large rooms, which are provided with examples of the most approved methods of drawing; perspective models, made at the Royal Sculpture Gallery at Dresden; a collection of casts of antique forms, made by Malpieri, of Rome; and a full set of models designed by Walter Smith, of Boston.

The mechanical drawing room is supplied from the shop with examples of machine construction, and it also contains specimens of the drawing and machine work done at other polytechnic schools, notably a large collection presented to this institution by the Imperial Institute of Technology at St. Petersburg.

The chemical laboratory occupies a separate building, and is well equipped for qualitative and quantitative analysis, assaying, and determinative mineralogy.

The physical laboratory occupies eight rooms and is well furnished

with the best modern apparatus, including instruments of precision in all of the departments of physics. Especial attention is given to electricity, and the laboratory is provided with dynamos, motors, and some of the best types of measuring instruments. In connection with the workshops, this laboratory furnishes unusual facilities for those who desire to fit themselves for the intelligent manufacture of electrical instruments and machinery, or for the management of the same.

The course in mathematics includes those branches of the subject which are necessary to a full understanding of the higher departments of physics and mechanics, both theoretical and applied. Especial attention has been given to the application of mathematical principles in this as well as in other departments.

In language all students are required to study English, German, and French. What is known as the "laboratory method" is largely used in language instruction, and especial attention is given to the reading and translating of various French and German technical journals. Work in language is distributed through the last three years of the course, at the end of which students have a good working knowledge of German and French, and in English they have studied with considerable care several of the best specimens of composition.

As a means of further culture in this direction each of the classes meets once a month for a "journal review," at which two or more members of the class present reviews of the current numbers of the numerous technical and scientific journals found in the reading room.

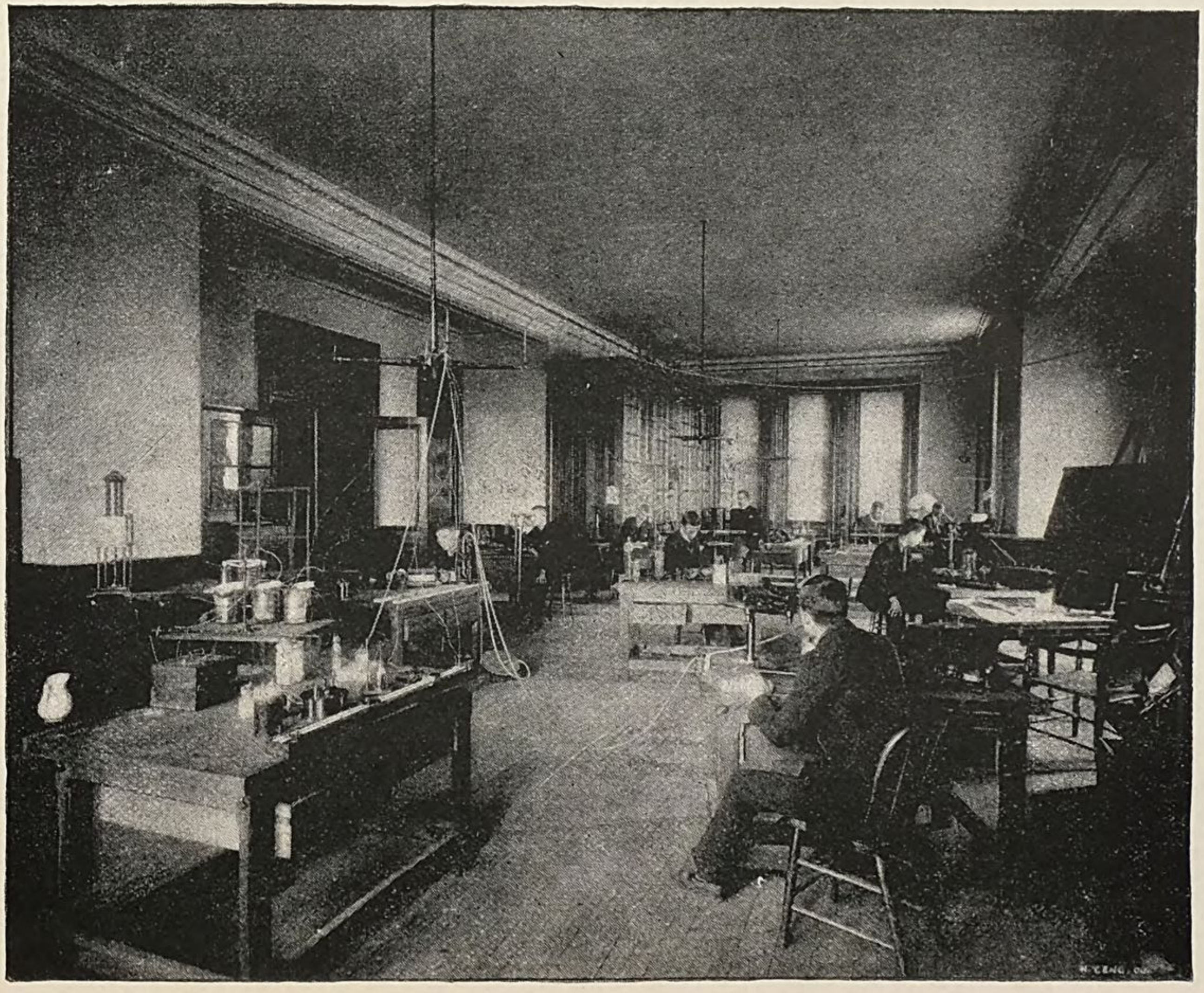
LIBRARY.

Although of very recent formation the library already contains a collection of 5,000 volumes, which have been carefully selected as directly relating to the technical and scientific work of the institute. It includes complete sets of many of the most important journals, transactions of societies, domestic and foreign, a complete set of the drawings and specifications of the United States Patent Office, Journal of Telegraph Engineers, etc., and is at all times accessible to the students.

A reading room is provided in which will be found more than forty of the leading scientific and technical journals in English, French, and German.

COURSE OF STUDY.

The following is a brief outline of the course of study, showing the number of hours per week given to each subject. This outline covers all of the courses, the differences growing out of the manner in which the hours under the head of "Practice" are spent. Thus, for those who give their attention exclusively to mechanical engineering, the practice hours are spent in the school shops; the students in civil engineering devote the practice hours after the Freshman year to special work in that department in the field or in recitation and lecture room. The



No. 11.—ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: PHYSICAL LABORATORY "A."

No. 13.—ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: LABORATORY FOR QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS.

special student in chemistry spends his practice hours in the chemical laboratory, and those who elect electricity as a specialty devote a large part of the practice time after the Freshman year to work in the physical laboratory and to recitations and lectures relating to that branch of physics.

Freshman class.—Drawing, 6; mathematics, 7; elementary mechanics, 2; practice, 20; physics and chemistry, 2; private study, 18; total, 55 hours.

Sophomore class.—Drawing, 8; mathematics, 6; language, 4; chemistry and mineralogy, 5; practice, 10; private study, 22; total, 55 hours.

Junior class.—Drawing, 6; mathematics, 4; language, 4; physics, 5; practice, 10; private study, 26; total, 55 hours.

Senior class.—Applied mechanics, 4; language and ethics, 5; physics, 1; physical laboratory, 6; chemical technology, 1; machine-design and mechanical laboratory, 6; practice, 8; private study, 20; total, 51 hours.

BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS.

The institute occupies a well-graded campus of 10 acres, lying on Locust street, between Twelfth and Thirteenth streets, in the city of Terre Haute, Indiana.

Three buildings have been erected, the Academic building, the workshop, and the chemical laboratory. These are all of brick and of liberal dimensions. Their character will be understood by an examination of the cuts and plans accompanying this article.

Several rooms in the basement of the Academic building are fitted up for gymnasium and bath-rooms. The gymnasium is well furnished with some of the best modern appliances for physical culture.

TUITION FEES, ETC.

In accordance with the terms of the bequest of Mr. Rose no charge for tuition is made to bona fide residents of Vigo County, Ind. All others pay $75 per year; and an annual fee of $25 for use of the laboratories, and to cover the cost of chemicals, ordinary breakage, etc., is required of all, regardless of place of residence.

CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

Candidates for admission to the Freshman class must be at least 16 years old, and must pass examinations in the following branches: English grammar, history of the United States, geography, arithmetic, and algebra to quadratic equations.

Students may be admitted to advanced standing when properly qualified, and graduates of certain manual-training schools are admitted to the Sophomore class.

The number of students admitted to the Freshman class is limited to fifty. The class is divided into sections and the object of the limitation is to insure that the classes will not be larger than is compatible with the best possible use of the facilities of the institute.

ALUMNI AND STUDENTS.

The first class was graduated in 1885 and contained 3 members. The classes of 1886 and 1887 contained 16 and 8 members, respectively, so that up to the present time the total number of alumni is 27.

All are engaged in remunerative occupations, as civil engineers, draftsmen, mechanical engineers in the employ of large manufacturing establishments, electric-light companies, or in other employment closely related to the technical training which they secured at the institute.

During the present year, 1887–'88, 106 students have been enrolled in the four classes of the institute, the Freshman class having reached the limit given above.

CHAPTER X.

THE DENOMINATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

"After God had carried us safe to New England, and we had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our livelihood, reared convenient places for God's worship, and settled the civil government, one of the next things we longed for and looked after was to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity, dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches after our present ministry shall be in the dust."

These words are recorded in the story of the Pilgrim Fathers. They recall for us the well-known fact in the early history of American education that an anxiety for a pure and enlightened ministry led to the founding of the first American colleges. To promote learning in order to propagate the gospel was the chief purpose of John Harvard and his co-laborers in Plymouth and Massachusetts. "*Christo et ecclesiæ*" was the motto over this first New England college. The act of Connecticut chartering Yale College recites "the desire of several well-disposed persons, their sincere regard to and zeal for the upholding and propagating the Chistian protestant religion by a succession of learned and orthodox men; that youth, through the blessing of God, might be fitted for public employment in church and civil state, and that all due encouragement might be given to such pious resolutions, and that so necessary and religious an undertaking might be forwarded."

The establishment of the denominational schools in Indiana reveals a similar fact iu the record of higher education. "*Christo et ecclesiæ!*" In the foundation of these early colleges in the new State, "*Christ and the church*" have been the chief stone of the corner, coeval with the establishment of their earliest homes. As soon as civilization was settled in the new country the Christian pioneers who had come to the State began the establishment of schools to provide for the higher Christian education of their young men and women. These men believed with Froebel, "that all education not founded in religion was vain." They believed with Francis Lieber, not only that "Christianity considered as a branch of knowledge constituted an indispensable element in a liberal education, but that Christianity taken solely as an historical fact is incomparably the mightiest fact in the annals of human society; that it has tinctured and penetrated all systems of knowledge, all institutions, both civil and exclusively social, the laws, languages, and literature of the civilized nations, their ethics, rights, tastes, and wants." This influence and this religion they conceived it the chief end of education to maintain.

The proof of such influence in the habits, minds, wants, and lives of the early citizens of Indiana is seen in the struggle they endured to secure and perpetuate the denominational Christian college. It is to the record of these institutions of learning that we now invite attention.

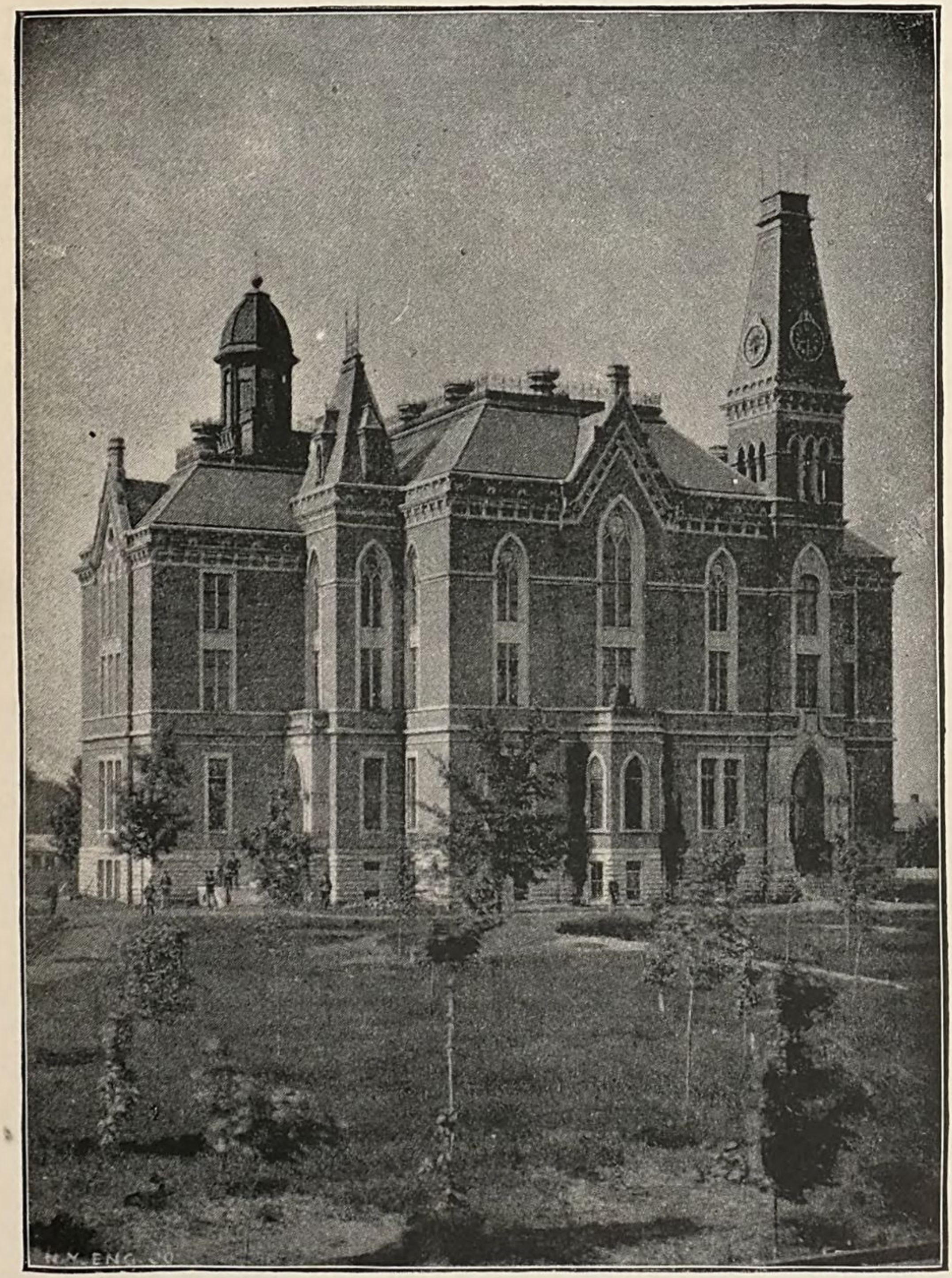
De Pauw University.

"A history of England in the eighteenth century," says Lord Mahon, "would be strangely incomplete were it to leave untouched that religious revolution which, despised in its commencement, but powerful in its effects, is known by the name of Methodism. With less immediate importance than wars, or political changes, it endures long after not only the result but the memory of these has passed away, and thousands who never heard of Fontenay or Walpole continue to follow the precepts and venerate the memory of John Wesley."

One of the most zealous and devoted followers of Wesley was Francis Asbury. Born in 1745, soon coming within the influence of the great dissenter and reformer, he became thoroughly imbued with Wesley's evangelical spirit. Called to preach while yet a boy, his soul burning within him with a desire to carry the gospel of salvation to those who had it not, he volunteered in 1771 to leave his native land for missionary work in America. From that time he has been known to the world as the great apostle of American Methodism. As Methodist bishop of America, Asbury's visitations carried him over 6,000 miles of territory, through forests and rivers and swamps and prairies. By a life of danger, suffering and toil, at the sacrifice of all worldly ease and pleasure, he established the "Society of Wesley" in America. Methodism and Christian civilization in the new world owe to Francis Asbury a memorable debt of gratitude. He gave again to "Christ and the Church" all that God had given him.

A follower of Wesley and Asbury was Matthew Simpson, the most illustrious name in the second century of American Methodism. Under the influence of the same spirit which had guided Wesley and Asbury, Simpson spent his life in the same cause. He found the foundations of his church well established, in an era which demanded a higher and more enduring intellectual life. To him, a natural leader among the million adherents of his faith, nothing seemed of more importance, for the perpetuity and greater influence of that faith, than the Christian education of young men and women. To this problem he gave the earliest and best years of his life. In the prime of his young manhood Matthew Simpson, afterwards for many years the senior Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church in America, became the first President of Indiana Asbury College. Through him, and the men for whom he stood, Wesley and Asbury have touched the educational life of Indiana in a powerful and permanent way.

On September 16, 1840, at the installation of President Simpson at Greencastle, Governor Wallace, of Indiana, spoke of the pioneer Metho-



No. 15.—DE PAUW UNIVERSITY: MAIN BUILDING, EAST COLLEGE.

dist ministers and their followers, who had by their sacrifices established this institution for Christian education. In the fervid oratory of his day, after the manner in which the historian Parkman speaks of the Jesuit Fathers, the Governor said: "They have been the companions of our pioneer fathers, they have been our moral and religious instructors. Spurning the luxuries of life, the refinements of taste and elegance, the comforts of ease and affluence, the allurements of the world, with the spirit of a Wesley only to nerve them, they laughed the dangers of flood and field to scorn; looked the terrors of the wilderness in the face with cheeks unblanched; endured cold and hunger without a murmur; encountered privation and peril without shrinking, and dying by the wayside even, leaving no memorial of their burial place, and for what? That the voice of supplication and prayer might rise from the deepest solitudes of our valleys; that the lamp of eternal life might be lit up in the gloomy recesses of our lonely cabins; that the departing spirits of their rude but noble tenants might be cheered and sustained, and reconciled in that awful hour by the glorious promises of another and a better world. The same sternness of purpose, the same unflagging zeal, the same untiring effort as in the beginning, still stamp their every conduct and action. They have suffered no pause in their labors; they follow the steps of improvement now, only to gather materials, and to seize occasions the better to scatter the choicest of heaven's blessings along their pathway; and at last, as if determined to leave nothing undone that the power and sublimity of the principles they teach may be appropriately displayed, they are now seeking out of the immense mass of intellect around them to rear a moral and mental structure for eternity."

Toward the conclusion of his address, in what might properly be called a charge to the president in the spirit of the best friends of the new enterprise, Governor Wallace continued in "a word of caution," with these manly and appropriate words: "I have heard the objection repeatedly and sneeringly made, 'Look at that institution; see how the number of its students has diminished,' as if its merits or demerits were alone to be tested and judged of by the length of its catalogue of students' names. Mark it: Whenever the contest between our colleges shall become, not which shall send forth the greatest number of best educated men, but which shall exhibit in their respective porticos the greater crowd, we may then set it down that their fate is sealed, their usefulness ended, and the hopes of their friends blighted. No, sir; if your object is to give to this institution a real, a substantial, and an enduring reputation, to make it what its projectors designed it to be, a blessing to the State and nation, and to place yourself on the highest pinnacle of honor in your profession, suffer no student to leave with its parchment in his possession unless he carry with him all the elements of a thorough, sound, and practical American education."

These words give evidence that there were men in the years of foundation-laying who fully comprehended the nature of the great work they

had undertaken. Many of the difficulties in the way of such an enterprise we can not to-day fully understand. Besides overcoming the ordinary obstacles of poverty and indifference among the people, the new institutions under church auspices in that day had to encounter the positive opposition of religious rivals, as the State University at times suffered from the combined and ungenerous hostility of them all. The denominational schools of Indiana were founded in a time when sectarian strife and rivalry were more bitter and unchristian than is readily understood by us, who live in a better age of peace, amity, and Christian fellowship. The Methodist and the Presbyterian of those days frequently encountered in published sermons passages like the following:

"If there be an uncompromising *exclusive* principle in Christianity, this principle we hold to be faith in the doctrine of Christ, *according to our standards.*"

"The New School Theology is on the high road to Deism. If it were to succeed in putting down all opposition, and securing the field to itself, it would bring on the millenium of Infidelity."

"If Christianity will renounce her exclusive principle, and exercise a liberal charity for all forms of idolatry; if she will recognize or even let alone Taylorism, Arminianism and the various *other* forms of infidelity,—she will be received by the 'sister churches' into the embraces of popular favor."

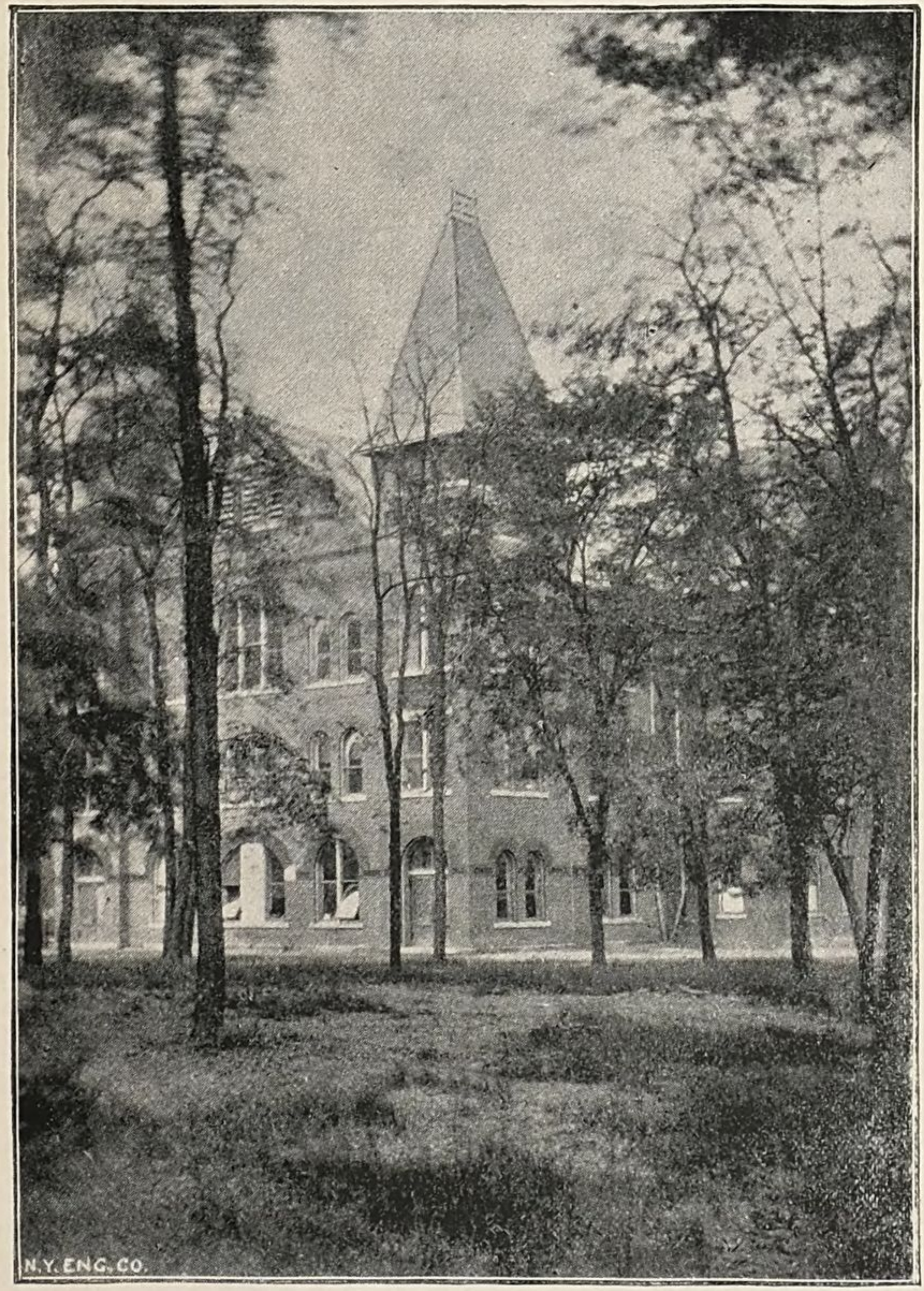
"The wretched heathen Ovid is a better theologian than our Calvinists."

Such passages illustrate the controversies of the times.

In the midst of such a spirit which permeated to a great extent the theology of the church, President Simpson felt called upon to repel the charge of "sectarianism" brought against the new institution over which he was called to preside.

In his installation address following the oration of Governor Wallace, after calling attention to the fact that "colleges or high institutions of learning have always been the precursors of great improvements, whether in government or in the arts of civilized life," the President said:

"But the startling cry of sectarianism may perhaps be echoed throughout the land. We expect it. If by sectarianism be meant that any privilege shall be extended to youth of one denomination more than another, or that the faculty shall endeavor to proselyte those placed under their instruction, or dwell upon the minor points controverted between the branches of the great Christian family—then there is not, and we hope there never will be sectarianism here. Indeed our college charter secures equal privileges to all students without reference to religious peculiarities, and it is ever to be hoped that in collegiate instruction only the grand essentials of Christianity shall be taught. But, if by sectarianism be meant that the professors are religious men, and that they have settled views upon Christian character and duty, then we ever hope to be sectarian.



No. 16.—DE PAUW UNIVERSITY: WEST COLLEGE.

"Our own course is fully determined. Education without morals is pernicious, and to have morals without religious instruction is impossible. Taking, then, our stand upon the grand and broad platform of evangelical truth, passing by all minor and non-essential points, we shall ever strive to cultivate the moral as well as the mental faculties of those entrusted to our care."

On this platform laid down by President Simpson—with this view of one of the fundamental purposes of education—Asbury College has stood and grown. It has ever been willing to be recognized in the prophecy of its first president; to his ideal it has constantly striven to attain.

The institution now known as De Pauw University,[1] then known as "Asbury," was chartered in 1837 under the name of "The Trustees of the Indiana Asbury University." It was founded by the Indiana Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, the only conference at that time in Indiana. In the year 1832, while the greater part of Indiana was still unsettled and unimproved land, the pioneer Methodist preachers of the State began to agitate the question of education among the people of their denomination. In their annual conference of that year, inquiry was made as to the expediency of establishing a school which should serve as a germ of a Methodist university. Three years later, this inquiry and agitation resulted in action. The school was opened for instruction in 1835, and two years later received its charter, as we have stated, under the name of "Indiana Asbury University." It was located at Greencastle, in Putnam County, 40 miles west of Indianapolis, and very nearly half way between the north and south limits of the State. It is now in the very midst of the higher institutions of learning in Indiana. In its specific Methodist constituency it is sufficiently far removed from schools of the same grade and religious denomination, North and South, East and West, so as not to be brought into hurtful competition. It can develop in a field that is otherwise unoccupied.

The purpose of the incorporation is expressed in a report of the founders as follows: "Deeming, next to the religion of the Son of God, the lights of science best calculated to lessen human woe, and to increase the sum of human happiness, and having learned from observation and information that where superior schools and colleges are neglected ordinary schools are almost universally in a languid state, and many persons live and die without any education, we therefore report that a seminary or college under good literary and moral regulations would be of incalculable benefit to our people, and recommend the establishment of such an institution."

The enterprise was regarded with indifference, or with hostility, by many who should have been its friends. It was with considerable

[1] Obligation is due to Rev. Dr. Poucher, of the theological school of De Pauw University, for much of the following sketch of De Pauw.

heroism and self-sacrifice that the religious founders of this new institution pledged their influence, their prayers, and a large share of their means to its establishment and support. They were men not of liberal education and broad culture, but they had a comprehension of the nature of the work which they had undertaken, and they understood, in some measure, its importance to the church, to the community, and to the State.

For its first four years the university consisted of only a preparatory school, occupying two half-furnished rooms in a small rented house. The principal of this school was Rev. Cyrus Nutt, one of the most active and public spirited of Indiana's pioneer teachers. Dr. Nutt was afterwards, for 15 years, president of Indiana University. In 1839 the first faculty of the college was regularly appointed. This faculty consisted of four members, its president being the Rev. Matthew Simpson, afterwards the distinguished Bishop of the Methodist Church. In the following year the first class, of four members, was graduated. Of that class two are still living—Rev. T. A. Goodwin, of Indianapolis, and Hon. Joseph E. McDonald, ex-United States Senator from Indiana.

From its small beginnings the college, like nearly all others in the West, experienced a series of struggles. It possessed neither lands, nor buildings, nor endowment. Its founders who suffered for its sake, and who knew the college only under trial, probably never dared to hope that it would so soon reach its present conditions of material prosperity.

The charter granted by the legislature of Indiana is very liberal, and confers on the university, in addition to the usual prerogatives, authority to "establish professional schools of law or of medicine at such place, or places, in the State, as the board of trustees may think best." The 21 trustees are elected, on a nearly equal apportionment, by the Indiana, North Indiana, Southeast Indiana, and Northwest Indiana Annual Conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church. In *personnel* the board has consisted of lawyers, physicians, bankers, ministers, farmers, merchants and men of other occupations, who are elected for a term of 3 years, but have usually served for a much longer period, unless death, removal to a distant region, or some other similar circumstance, has made a change necessary. In addition to these, there is an advisory council of 9 ministerial visitors, chosen annually, who in connection with the trustees are empowered to cast their ballots in the election of members of the faculty, and to be present at and engage in the discussion of all matters of business pertaining to the university. The presence of at least one visitor is necessary to form a quorum. This "Joint Board" meets annually during the "Commencement" season, and may adjourn to meet in the interim.

The administration of the internal government is committed to a president of the university, as distinct from the president of the board of trustees. The institution has been generally very fortunate in the selection of the occupants of this responsible position. Two of them

have been afterwards promoted to the chief office of their church, and another became equally reputable. Bishop Simpson, as was previously mentioned, was its first president. He occupied the position from 1839 to 1849. Lucien W. Berry was president from 1849 to 1855; Daniel Curry, 1855 to 1859; Bishop Thomas Bowman, 1859 to 1872; Reuben Andrus, 1872 to 1875; and Alexander Martin in 1875. Dr. Martin resigned the presidency in June, 1889, and was succeeded by Dr. J. P. D. John, the vice-president and professor of mathematics.[1]

The financial resources of the institution had heretofore been accumulated almost altogether in small contributions. A few donors of large amounts had occasionally appeared to rescue the school from threatened suspension, but its previous maintenance had depended upon popular affection and beneficence. A few years ago, Hon. Washington C. DePauw, a very successful financier of the State and a member of the board at various times, had in contemplation the founding of a liberally-endowed university at some place not definitely determined. When, therefore, the friends of "Asbury" learned of his purpose, they saw what they regarded as a providential opportunity to relieve the college from embarrassment and to found a university that would greatly enhance the cause of learning and be worthy of a place in one of the leading commonwealths of the nation. After prolonged negotiations, a happy consummation was effected and Mr. DePauw consented to apply his intended munificence to this university, which heretofore had been only a college and preparatory school. His plan was to found an institution in which should be connected a system of professional schools. Mr. DePauw proposed to ask the friends of the institution in Putnam County to raise a certain amount for the purchase of additional real estate on which he would erect suitable buildings, and to solicit other friends in the State, and elsewhere, to contribute enough to support without loss of endowment the college of liberal arts and the preparatory school on the basis then existing. As an inducement thereto, he agreed to give two dollars for every one so contributed. The terms were accepted, and in a measure have been met. Mr. DePauw also made such provision in his will as will result, it is believed, in making this one of the best endowed educational institutions of the interior. The various gifts and provisions which the university has received from Mr. DePauw will probably aggregate more than half a million dollars, and it is expected that still more will be received upon the final settlement of his estate.

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[1] Dr. J. P. D. John, the president of DePauw University, was born at Brookville, Ind., Nov. 25, 1843. In 1860 he began teaching in the public schools of the State, and continued in this service for three years. In 1863 he was elected professor of mathematics in Brookville College, succeeding to the presidency of that institution in 1869. He was professor of mathematics in Moore's Hill College from 1872 to 1876, when he became the president of Moore's Hill, serving until 1882, with the exception of a year which he spent in travel and study in Europe. In 1882 he accepted the chair of mathematics in DePauw University, which he still holds in connection with the presidency.

In view of this liberal provision, the joint board of trustees and visitors unanimously asked consent of Mr. DePauw that they might attach his name to the unified system of college and professional schools. The original college retains the name of "Asbury," a title originally intended as distinctive, and given in honor of the first Methodist Bishop of Indiana, and the great founder of Methodism in the State. The preparatory department was to be known as "Greencastle Preparatory School." Accordingly, by a decree of the Putnam circuit court, May 5, 1884, "DePauw University" was made the legal successor of "The Trustees of the Indiana Asbury University," to enjoy all the rights, powers, privileges, franchises, and immunities conferred upon said corporation by its charter and the amendments thereof and the laws of the State of Indiana.

The university embraces at present the following departments:

I. The Asbury College of Liberal Arts. This includes four courses:

(1) The classical course. This corresponds with that of the usual colleges requiring five years' consecutive study of the ancient languages and the usual quantity of the sciences, mathematics, English literature, etc.

(2) The philosophical course. This requires an equal time for satisfactory accomplishment, embracing, in lieu of the Greek language, German or French, with some special work in English, science, and mathematics.

(3) The scientific course. In this special attention must be given to the physical sciences.

(4) The course in literature and art. In this course opportunity is given for special culture in music and the fine arts. During the Junior and Senior years students in any course are permitted to elect two of the four studies required, with four recitations per week. Choice is offered from a broad range of subjects bordering on professional or practical life.

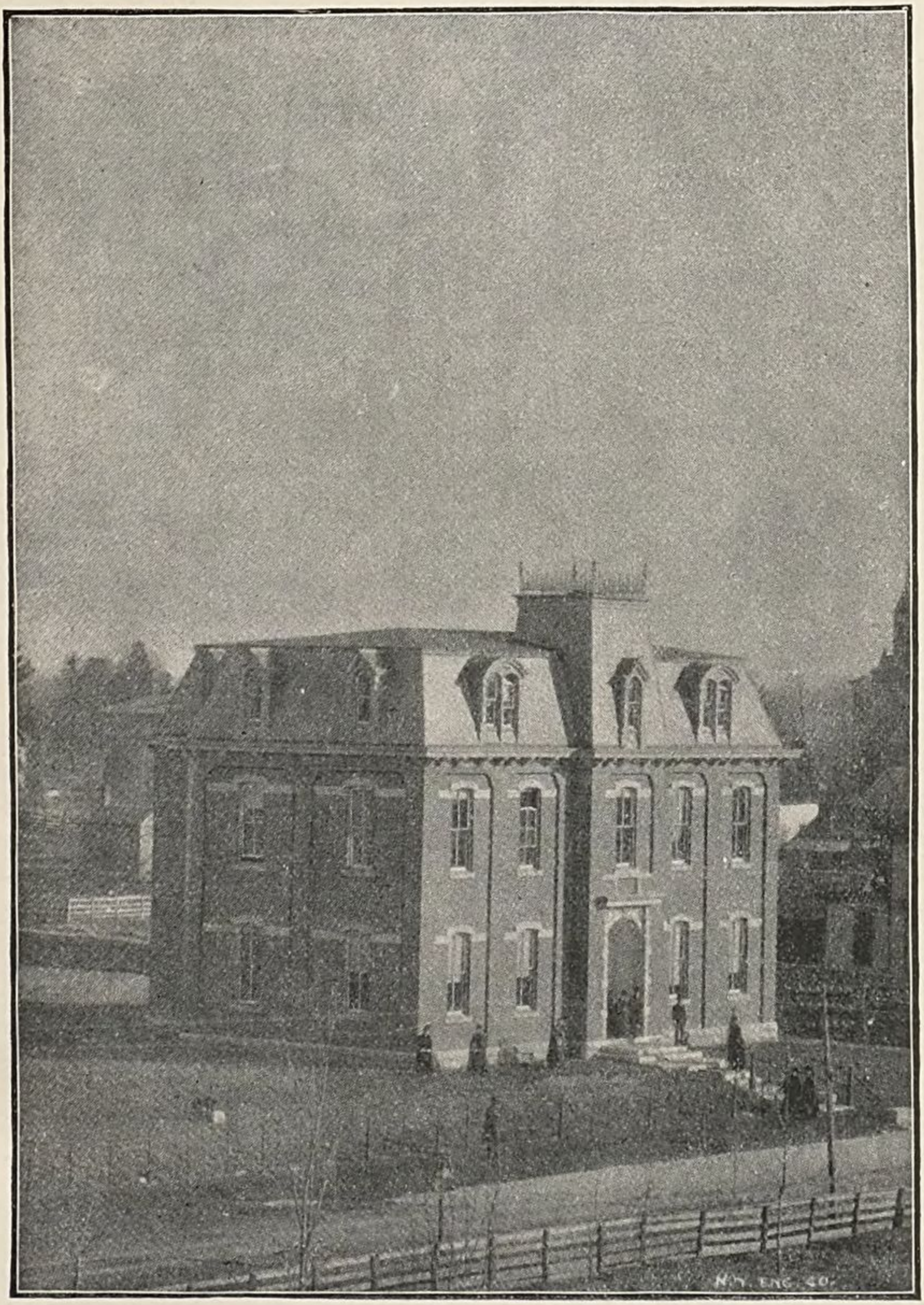
II. The school of theology. This is designed for the higher education of ministers, though not restricted to the Methodist Church, or that of any other evangelical denomination. The faculty at present consists of the president and four professors, one of whom is dean of the school by election of the board. It is the purpose to furnish to worthy young people an opportunity to advance themselves in the knowledge of what are known as the evangelical doctrines of theology.

III. The school of law.

IV. The school of military science and tactics. An officer of the U. S. Army is in regular detail as commandant of the military corps of the university. Into this the gentlemen of the two lower college classes and of the highest class in the preparatory school must be mustered.

V. The school of music.

VI. The school of art.



No. 17.—MUSIC HALL, DE PAUW UNIVERSITY.

VII. The Greencastle Preparatory School. In addition to this preparatory school at Greencastle, Mr. DePauw also left a bequest to provide, on certain conditions, for the opening of an academy or preparatory school in connection with the DePauw Female College at New Albany. The course of study in this preparatory school is to be arranged by the faculty of the university.

The growth of some of these schools, in view of the short period of their existence, may be considered remarkable. The graduates of the College of Liberal Arts are a large and honorable body of men and women, numbering 955, who have been distinguished for their devotion to the public weal in professional, commercial, domestic, and industrial life. In 1867 women were admitted to the privileges of academical study, and 106 have completed the prescribed course and received the honors of graduation, the first class of 4 in 1871. At present about one-fifth of the academical students are women. In this higher education the authorities have met with no embarrassment that has by them been considered serious, and a high degree of scholarship in both sexes has been successfully maintained. Now all university privileges are unrestricted.

It has ever been the aim of the university authorities, even before the establishment of professional schools, to furnish liberal opportunities for the symmetrical development of students. Individual professors have left the impress of didactic skill on their pupils, and at times the pursuit of one set of studies has been more popular than another, but the university has never allowed itself to advertise superior advantages for any specialty. Its purpose has been to make good scholars and loyal citizens who will appreciate law, morality, and religion, and will exert their cultured abilities for the general improvement of society. Nevertheless, among the alumni are those who have been noted as jurists, scientists, ministers of the gospel, public functionaries, teachers, and physicians. Indeed, if the institution can boast of any distinction, it is in the unusually large number of practical and successful men of affairs who have received instruction within its halls. The establishment of new schools makes investigation possible in various fields, and it is believed that excellence depends on the application of students as well as on the learning and skill of the professor.

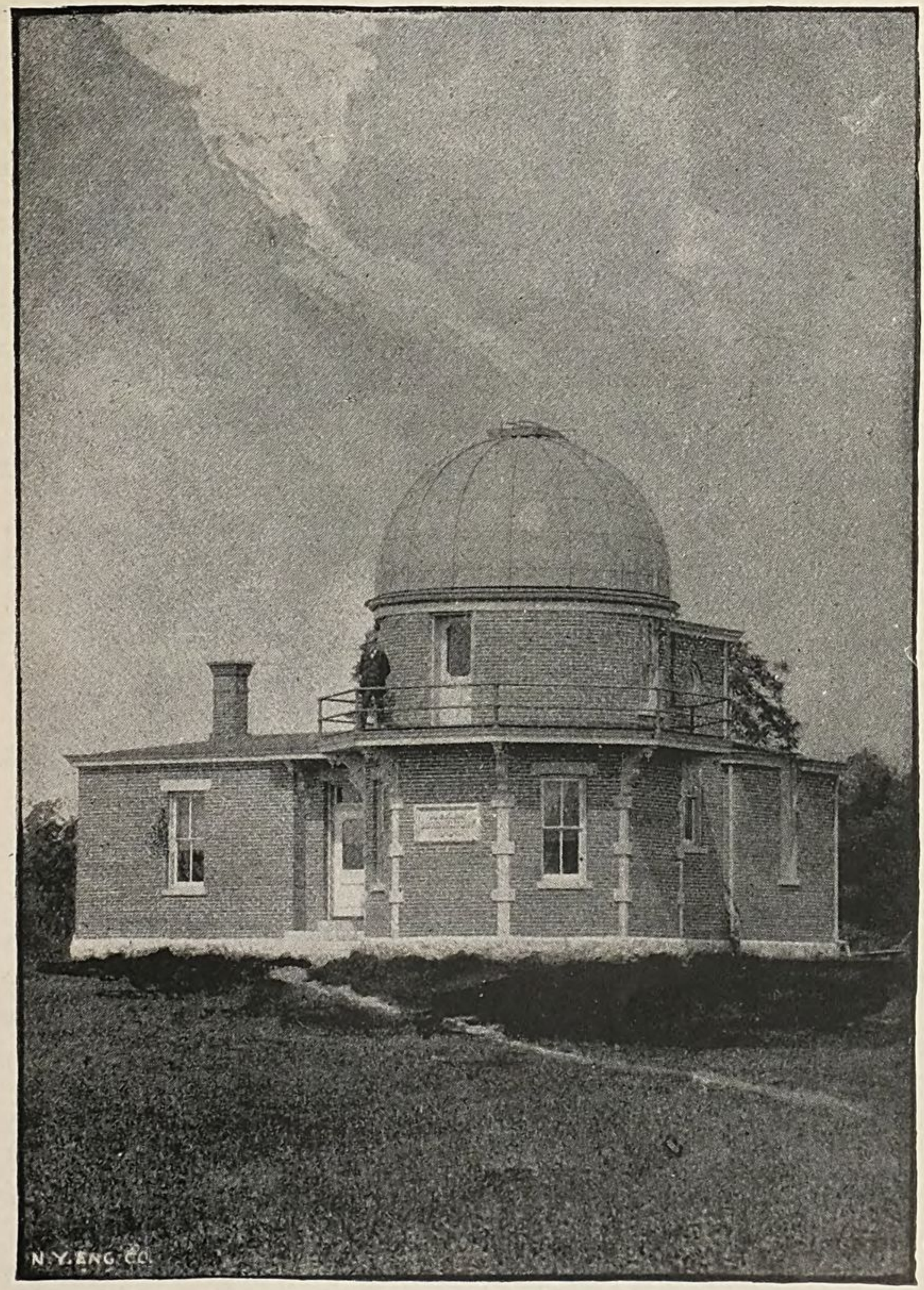
BUILDINGS.

Until recently the real estate of the university was not of great value, but under the new régime important additions in land and buildings have been effected. The original college building, completed in 1840, has been enlarged by the erection of transverse sections on the east and west sides. Within this extensive structure are found ample accommodations for the university library, the departments of physics and biology, of the college of liberal arts, and for all the various departments of the normal and preparatory schools. Here is also the office of the

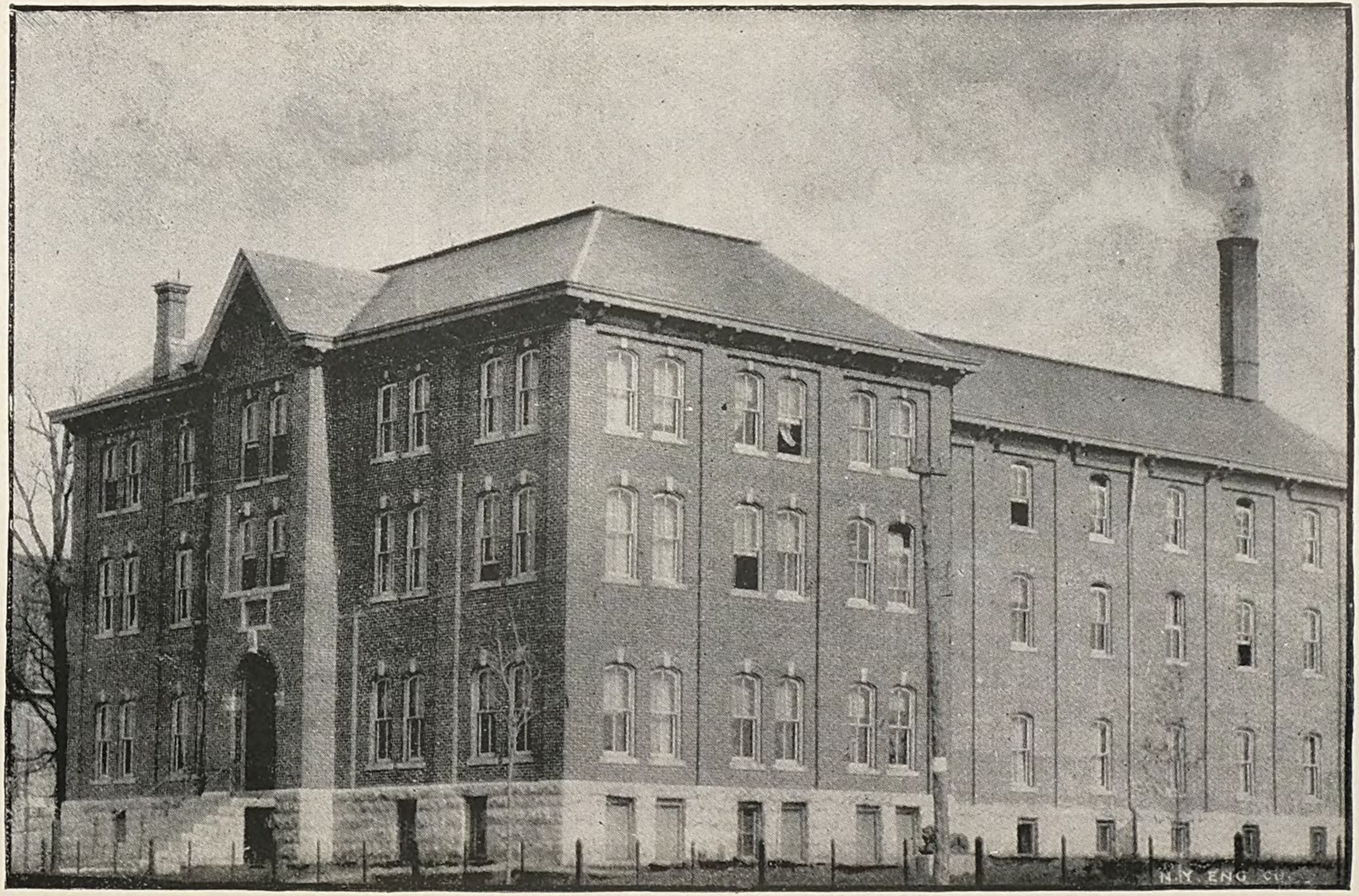
Weather Service. The East College, begun in 1871 and finished seven years afterwards, is a magnificent brick edifice of massive proportions, costing over $100,000, and situated in a large and ornamental campus bounded by two of the principal streets of the city. In this structure is a large auditorium seating over 1,200, two commodious halls for society purposes, the lecture rooms of most of the professors in the college of liberal arts, and president's, registrar's, and treasurer's offices, while almost one entire story is occupied by the department of chemistry. Music Hall is a beautiful structure of three stories with mansard roof. Simpson's art hall affords sufficient room at present for the school of fine arts. These two are in the east campus, separated from center campus by a leading thoroughfare. On the highest knoll of a large estate, recently purchased, overlooking a charming landscape for many miles around, is located the McKim Observatory, erected and equipped by the munificence of the gentleman whose name it bears. The equatorial is 12 feet long with a clear aperture of 9.53 inches, and all the modern adjustments and conveniences. There are also three lodging and boarding halls; one on the West Campus, within a few rods of the main buildings, and a third, for the special accommodation of students in theology, in the South Park, a beautiful plat of 8 acres, 30 rods away. The lecture rooms and libraries of the schools of theology and law are temporarily located in the gentlemen's hall on the west campus. With two or three exceptions, none of these structures are very expensive, as it has been the uniform policy of the board to apply the resources at command to the development of facilities for living instruction rather than to the erection of costly buildings. They are of stone and brick, slate-roofed, and with water and other conveniences.

LIBRARY.

The original college circulating library has been enriched by several valuable additions, notably the private and official libraries of the late Governor James Whitcomb and the late United States Senator Henry S. Lane, together with numerous smaller collections and the libraries of special schools and departments. A special fund furnishes a small annual income to be expended for books, and a nominal fee is collected from students to meet, with other contingencies, the expenses of employing an assistant to the librarian, who is a member of the faculty, serving without extra pay. The general library is open several hours per day, and the other libraries are accessible to students on easy conditions. The museums and departmental cabinets are not remarkably rich, but the industry and enthusiasm of curators and professors with the liberal disposition of friends and patrons, insure constant improvement. The lithological and anatomical cabinets are especially valuable.



No. 18.—DE PAUW UNIVERSITY: McKIM OBSERVATORY.



No. 19.—DE PAUW UNIVERSITY: LADIES' HALL.

ATTENDANCE.

The total enrollment of students in 48 years to 1887 is 17,748, an average of 369 for each year of the university's existence; but in the first 12 years the average annual enrollment was only 210, while in the last 12 it was 529. The "Year Book" of 1887 reports 848 different names. If we count the full stay of a student for graduation at an average of five years, and if all had finished the course, there would have been 3,549 instead of 955 graduates. The exhibit therefore indicates that a very large proportion of students have taken only a partial course, which in some cases has nearly reached graduation, so that the beneficent influence of the institution can not be estimated by the number of alumni, however large it may seem. In fact, the aggregate of educatioual advantage is doubtless much greater for the large number of those stopping short of a diploma than for those who are entitled bachelors. Three years of thorough preparatory study and training are required for admission to regular college class room. The number of students now in attendance in the various departments is nearly 900, and includes young men and young women from all parts of the United States, from the Bermuda Islands, Great Britain, China and Japan.

What have been the causes which have produced a growing university from the small beginning of Asbury College? It has not been alone the reputation or personal power of its presidents and professors, though they have usually been capable and efficient men. Neither has it been the facilities that money commands, for the instructors have been invariably engaged on meager salaries, much lower than in other institutions of similar grade, and until recently the equipments for educational work have been very limited. Yet professors have willingly served at a sacrifice, because, while they received but little pecuniary renumeration, they have been rewarded with the satisfaction of laboring successfully with large classes of students who also were denying themselves for the sake of learning, and coming from homes where the lessons of economy had been absolutely necessary. Nearly every student also, whether he graduated or not, has come under an enthusiasm within himself and from his friends.

The institution originally was the product of many small gifts, and the contribution of a few dollars to the endowment, or for a scholarship, insured a lasting interest on the part of these patrons who may be counted by thousands. Because of the insufficient endowment, the Methodist pastors found it necessary to present frequently the claims of the institution for financial aid and moral support, and, to enforce their appeals, they must also speak of the merits of the school so that it received an amount of free advertising which can not be estimated. When Mr. DePauw made his propositions for the enlargement of the sphere of the university, and the friends made a general canvass reaching the secluded regions, the number of students began to increase very

rapidly, so that by no means the least advantage of that brilliant enterprise was the enviable notoriety gained in respect to the exceptional development of a school which heretofore had had a hard struggle to make ends meet.

The institution had also been the object of some denominational pride and enthusiasm, and in accordance with the peculiar polity of the church, all its preachers are officially charged to promote the interests that it fosters, and so these at all times have directed the promising youth of their churches to the advantages of DePauw, and have contributed very decidedly to the increase of numbers. While the institution is under denominational control, the greatest care is exercised to avoid the cultivation of a sectarian spirit. Many representatives from other religious denominations, as well as many who have professed no sectarian or theological proclivities, have accepted the opportunities here offered, and even several other leading ministers of other churches have finished their education at DePauw. No interference with a student's religious belief or views is encouraged, yet the atmosphere is confessedly favorable to the development of an intelligent and devoted piety. In view of this liberal disposition the attendance of pupils is numerous and varied, and the benefits of college life are greatly promoted.

In the early history of the institution those who sought admission were chiefly children of toil with a healthful zeal for an education. They were often very limited in financial resources. Conditions of cheap living were absolutely necessary. These conditions have not entirely passed away. The number of those in easy circumstances has grown with the general increase of the national wealth, and many of the very best and most diligent students have enjoyed the advantages of affluence; but it is the policy of the faculty, as well as of the trustees, to give all possible encouragement to those who are embarrassed with poverty and other hindrances while seeking for advancement in all the sciences. There is no charge for tuition in the Asbury College of Liberal Arts, or in the preparatory or theological schools, and other expenses are moderate.

All the benefits of Mr. DePauw's bequest will not at once become available. It is proper to add, however, that his legal heirs and legatees have given evidence of a liberal disposition towards the university. It is the purpose of the board of trustees and visitors to continue the development of the institution on the broad and liberal plan originally devised. In the last few years the profitable assets have been more than doubled. Provision has been made for the gradual increase of the annual income to correspond with the symmetrical growth of the university in its educational purpose. Little did the founders contemplate the possible magnitude of their enterprise, but they made very few mistakes, and their successors have managed the undertaking with such sagacity and business skill that the growth of that which was

planned fifty years ago has met with scarcely an interruption, and its outlook is better now than ever before. It is a product of Indiana life. It is at present within a few miles of the center of our national population. Its spirit is that of the great interior States, where agriculture, manufacturing, commerce, the civil pursuits and the learned professions are at the best. Its corporators are bound by an oath to the Constitutions of the State and of the United States, and to administer their trusts without favor, affection, or partiality. Its constituency is essentially and enthusiastically loyal to national institutions. From its peculiar connection with the free and religious principles of the country, it is reasonable to infer that it will be the constant aim of its managers to educate American youth to accomplish that which is of the highest intellectual, social, and moral advantage.

THE FACULTY OF DEPAUW.

Bishop Thomas Bowman, D. D., LL. D., *Chancellor.*
John P. D. John, A. M., D. D., *President, Professor of Mathematics and Director Emeritus of McKim Observatory.*
Alexander Martin, D. D., LL. D., *Professor of Mental and Moral Science.*
John B. DeMotte, A. M., *Professor of Physics.*
Rev. Edwin Post, A. M., Ph. D., *George Manners Professor of Latin Language and Literature.*
Philip S. Baker, A. M., M. D., *Professor of Chemistry.*
Hillary A. Gobin, A. M., D. D., *Dean of School of Theology, Professor of Practical Theology.*
Alexander C. Downey, LL. D., *Dean of School of Law, Professor of Law.*
Joseph Carhart, A. M., *Professor of Rhetoric and Elocution.*
Rev. Thomas J. Bassett, A. M., *Principal of the Preparatory School.*
Hon. Henry H. Mathias, A. M., *Professor of Law.*
Hon. Jonathan Birch, A. M., *Professor of Law.*
Hon. Granville C. Moore, A. M., *Professor of Law.*
James H. Howe, *Dean of School of Music.*
Arnold Tompkins, *Dean of Normal School.*
William H. Mace, *Professor of History and Acting Professor of Geography in Normal School.*
Henry A. Mills, *Dean of School of Art.*
James Riley Weaver, A. M., B. D., *Professor of Political Philosophy and Modern Languages.*
Belle A. Mansfield, A. M., LL. B., *Professor of History and Preceptress of Ladies' Hall.*
Lena Eva Alden, *Professor of the Pianoforte.*
Julia Druley, *Professor of the Pianoforte.*
Susie G. Kelley, M. B., *Professor of the Pianoforte.*
George L. Curtis, M. D., D. D., *Professor of Historical Theology.*
Jennie S. Tompkins, *Professor of Mathematics in Normal School.*

Rev. John Poucher, D. D., *Harmon Professor of Exegetical Theology.*
Oliver P. Jenkins, A. M., M. S., Ph. D., *Professor of Biology and Curator of the Museum.*
Lieut. R. C. Williams, U. S. A., *Professor of Military Science and Tactics.*
Rev. William F. Swahlen, A. M., Ph. D., *Robert Stockwell Professor of the Greek Language and Literature.*
Henry B. Longden, A. M., *Assistant Professor of Latin.*
Wilbur V. Brown, B. S., *Assistant Professor of Mathematics and Director of the Observatory.*
Alice Wentworth, *Professor of Voice Culture.*
Harry M. Smith, *Instructor on Flute, Piccolo, and Trombone.*
George H. Arthur, *Instructor in the Science and Art of Pianoforte Tuning.*
Wilbur T. Ayres, A. B., *Instructor in Mathematics.*
Herman Hinsching, *Instructor on Reed Instruments.*
Parker B. Graham, *Instructor on Band Instruments.*
Louise Fisher, *Instructor in Art.*
Rev. Harry L. Beals, A. M., *Instructor in English.*
Anna A. Smith, *Instructor on the Pianoforte.*
Rev. Harry L. Beals, *Instructor in Systematic Theology.*
Ermina Fallass, Ph. D., *Instructor in English and Mathematics.*
Theodore L. Neff, A. M., *Instructor in Modern Languages.*
Charles E. Dixon, A. B., *Instructor in Latin.*
Minnie A. Haskell, A. B., *Instructor in Latin and History.*
Ida D. Mace, *Instructor in History in Normal School.*
Charles W. Greene, *Instructor in Geography in Normal School.*
Arthur O'Neill, *Instructor on Stringed Instruments.*
Urias J. Hoffman, *Instructor in English.*
Joseph V. Zartman, *Instructor in Sight Singing.*
Anna L. Bunger, *Instructor on Pianoforte.*

Wabash College.

Wabash College was founded at Crawfordsville, Ind., on the 21st of November, 1833, by a convention of nine Presbyterians, five of whom were ministers. The first board of trustees was elected the same day. On the next day the site was solemnly "dedicated to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy Ghost, for a Christian college." This site was the gift of Hon. Williamson Dunn. On the 3d of December, 1833, the institution was opened by Prof. Caleb Mills, with twelve young men in attendance. In 1834 it was chartered by the legislature of Indiana under the title of "Wabash Manual-Labor College and Teachers' Seminary." The "manual-labor" idea seemed to have strong hold on the minds of the early founders of denominational colleges in Indiana. In 1851, in the amended charter, the title was changed to its present corporate name, "Wabash College." In 1834 its first faculty, consisting of three professors, Caleb Mills, John S. Thompson, and Edmund O. Hovey,

was formed, and in December of the same year the Rev. Elihu W. Baldwin, D. D., was elected the first president. In 1835 the present campus was purchased and "South Hall" was commenced. In January, 1838, it was occupied, and in September following was destroyed by fire. In 1838 the first class of two members was graduated. More than 4,000 students have enjoyed the advantages of the college, and the number of its alumni is 532. In actual life the students and alumni have been successful, and a large number of them have achieved positions of trust and prominence.

The college derives its corporate name and powers from a charter granted by the legislature of Indiana. It has no organic connection with any ecclesiastic body, but is closely affiliated with the Presbyterian church. The college is controlled by a board of trustees, 21 in number, divided into four classes, each serving four years. One class is elected each year by the board. The board of trustees has entire control of the affairs of the college, administering its finances, appointing its instructors, conferring its degrees, and determining its general policy. The annual meeting of the board is held during Commencement week, and its continuous control of the affairs of the college is exercised by its executive committee. The board of trustees has pursued a conservative financial policy, avoiding debt as far as possible, and the results of this wise but difficult course have been to give the college an established prosperity.

The members of the faculty are elected by the board of trustees and have charge of instruction, discipline, and all the usual details of college work. To them is delegated the duty of recommending to the board those upon whom the degrees of graduation are to be conferred, and also the privilege of naming suitable persons for receiving the advanced or honorary degrees of the college.

Wabash College is situated within the corporate limits of the city of Crawfordsville, Ind. Crawfordsville is a city of 10,000 inhabitants, 44 miles northwest from Indianapolis, in the richest agricultural section of the State.

The city is beautifully located on the bluff of Sugar Creek, 80 feet above the level of the valley, and, with its complete system of waterworks, gas, and electric light, is one of the most flourishing towns in the Central States. The college buildings, which are situated in a grove of native forest trees, containing 33 acres, are heated by steam, and are directly connected with the city gas and water works and electric-light system.

Center Hall contains the chapel, the college library, the president's lecture room, recitation rooms for the departments of Greek, Latin, English, and the continental languages, mathematics, a drafting room, the halls and libraries of the literary societies, and the prayer hall of the Young Men's Christian Association.

Peck Scientific Hall, the building erected in accordance with the

bequest of Mr. Edwin J. Peck, for the department of physics and chemistry, contains 2 large lecture rooms, 6 general laboratories, 4 rooms for apparatus and supplies, 1 room for the special use of the board of trustees, and 5 large basement rooms for assaying, manufacture of gases, and storage. Particular attention has been given to arrangements for furnaces, gas and water pipes, motive power, and light, in order to furnish the best facilities for general work.

The physical laboratories are equipped with apparatus for illustration and research in the branches included in mechanics, hydrodynamics, acoustics, heat, optics, and electricity.

The chemical laboratories are furnished with special work tables, chemicals, furnaces, and other appliances needed for all kinds of chemical work.

Hovey Museum is devoted to biology, and is occupied by all the collections, the lecture room, and the laboratories of that department.

The collections may be classified as follows:

Mineralogy, including complete and valuable sets of minerals and ores from all parts of the world.

Paleontology, including complete series of fossils from every geological formation, supplemented by a set of casts of fossil vertebrates. The collection of local crinoids is unsurpassed.

Zoölogy, containing skeletons mounted, and alcoholic specimens representing all groups of animals, and an abundance of material for dissection.

Botany, including 40,000 specimens of dried plants, besides a large collection illustrating economic botany. The herbarium contains plants from every part of the world, an almost complete series from North America, and a very large and valuable working library.

Archæology, containing a great variety of specimens illustrating especially the implements and ornaments of the Indians and mound builders.

The biological laboratories are supplied with microscopes, dissecting instruments, reagents, and other apparatus necessary for practical work in all forms of animal and vegetable life.

South Hall contains a chapel, six recitation rooms, and an apparatus room for the preparatory department.

The libraries of the college contain 27,500 volumes. This is the largest and it is probably the best-selected college library in the State. Friends of the college have liberally endowed several alcoves, which have been filled with carefully selected books purchased in this country and in Europe. Among them are full sets of the best European and American reviews and magazines.

The library is rich in encyclopedias, lexicons, and books of reference. Facilities are provided for those who desire to pursue lines of investigation suggested in the class room. New publications of importance are bought and made accessible to the students. Over forty of

the best reviews, magazines, and journals are regularly placed on file for the students' use.

The literary societies have large and well-furnished halls and afford excellent advantages for training.

The college offers the following courses of study: The classical, leading to the degree of bachelor of arts, the scientific, leading to the degree of bachelor of science, and a post-graduate course for the degree of doctor of philosophy.

These courses of study have been carefully prepared to meet the requirements of a thorough preparation for professional or business life, and are believed to be equal to those proposed by similar institutions of learning.

Special courses of study may be taken by persons not candidates for a degree.

The preparatory department, which is closely associated with the college, offers a two years' course in the elementary studies which are required for admission to the Freshman class. The work of this department is designed to furnish a rapid, but thorough preparation for entering college. No particular age is required for admission. Students entering for the first time are examined only so far as to ascertain their fitness for the classes which they propose to enter. If coming from other institutions they may, without examination, be admitted on certificate, the condition being that they sustain a satisfactory examination at the close of their first term.

Graduates of the high schools of Indiana are admitted to the Freshman class on certificate without examination, and their connection with the class is conditioned on their ability to pursue the prescribed course.

In order to bring the college into closer relations with the school system of Indiana, a prize scholarship is offered each year to the male graduate of any high school in the State who attains the highest rank in his class. The holder of such a scholarship will be admitted to all the privileges of the institution during his course free of tuition and all other college bills. Wabash is not a coeducational institution.

The purpose of the college is to extend to young men the benefits of a liberal education. Its courses of instruction are arranged to give the best possible preparation for subsequent professional study, as well as to give that broad culture which should be the possession of every intelligent man. Recognizing, at the same time, the great importance of religious training, attendance upon daily worship is required, and all class-room instruction must be consistent with Christianity. The methods of instruction are those most approved by modern teachers, going beyond the ordinary routine of the recitation rooms, and seeking to develop in laboratories and library the strongest self-reliant work. In accordance with this spirit the equipments for such work are very complete, and the facilities furnished commend the institution to friends of sound learning.

The college has had only three presidents since its foundation: Rev. Elihu W. Baldwin, D. D., from 1835 to 1840. Rev. Charles White, D. D., from 1841 to 1861; Rev. Joseph F. Tuttle, D. D., from 1862 until 1891. President Tuttle is still presiding over Wabash College, which he has continued to do faithfully and successfully for 26 years. Dr. Tuttle was born in New Jersey in 1818, was graduated from Marietta College in 1841, and completed his theological studies at Lane Theological Seminary in Cincinnati.

The faculty of Wabash in 1890 was as follows:

Rev. Joseph F. Tuttle, D. D., LL. D., *President, and Beecher Professor of Moral and Mental Philosophy.*

John L. Campbell, LL. D., *Baldwin-Peck Professor of Physics and Astronomy.*

Henry Z. McLain, M. A., *LaFayette Professor of Greek Language and Literature.*

Jacob Norris, M. A., *Professor of Mathematics and Civil Engineering.*

John M. Coulter, Ph. D., *Rose Professor of Biology and Geology.*

Henry S. Kritz, Ph. D., *Principal of the Preparatory Department.*

Arthur B. Milford, M. A., *Professor of English Language and Literature.*

Chase Palmer, Ph. D., *Peck Professor of Chemistry and Mineralogy.*

Rev. Edward C. Winslow, M. A., *Williams Professor of the Latin Language and Literature.*

James H. Osborne, M. A., *Associate Principal of the Preparatory Department.*

Walter H. Evans, M. A., *Assistant in Biology.*

Albert F. Kuersteiner, B. A., *Instructor in German and French.*

Lucien E. McCord, B. A., *Tutor in Preparatory Department.*

Butler University.[1]

The epoch in which this university was founded was one of college building. For a generation from 1820 the extension of college work in America was remarkable. The "North-Western Christian University," by which name this institution was first known, came into existence like the majority of colleges organized at this time in the West. It sprang from the energy of the church. Men of faith and philanthropy in Indiana were called upon by the church, then in its feebleness in the State, to make no small sacrifices for the cause of education.

As early as 1841, the question of establishing a college was publicly considered in the general meeting of the Christian churches of the State, but owing to pecuniary inability, it was decided to defer an attempt of such magnitude until more propitious times.

At a State meeting held at Greensburgh, October 2, 1847, an item of business, couched in the following brief words, was taken up for con-

[1] The chief source of information for this sketch is an Historical Address on Butler University, from the pen of President Benton, of that institution.

sideration: "*Resolved*, That the brotherhood in this State ought to make some special effort in the cause of education." From this simple, unpretentious sentence, after many tentative efforts and measures, the North-Western Christian University had its origin. At this meeting, a committee of five was appointed to receive proposals from these and other points in the State that desired to compete for the location of the institution, now seriously and earnestly contemplated. Ovid Butler, Elijah Goodwin, L. H. Jameson, Milton B. Hopkins, and T. P. Connelly, constituted a committee to make decision of the matter. They met December 3, 1847, in Indianapolis, and having considered all the propositions then made, they concluded that it was not judicious to decide at that time the matter submitted to them. They adjourned to the following May, in order to give time for a more thorough canvass of the matter, and for a fuller expression of views from all parts of the State.

At this time, also, they judged it to be inexpedient to attempt the location, and concluded to refer the whole matter to the next State meeting, to be held at Flat Rock, Rush County, in October, 1848. This meeting appointed Elijah Goodwin to visit as many churches as possible, and to learn their wishes, both with respect to building such an institution, and if wishing one, at what point.

The visitation was made, and at the next State meeting, held October 1, 1849, in Indianapolis, Elijah Goodwin reported that a large majority of the churches visited were in favor of building a college, and of locating it at Indianapolis.

Ovid Butler was appointed at this time to draft, and to secure from the legislature a suitable charter, one that should be comprehensive in its character, and fitted to carry out the purposes of the projectors.

A liberal charter was obtained from the legislature, making the proposed corporation a joint stock company, with shares of $100 each, on which when paid up, or when the interest on the same was regularly paid, the stockholder received interest at 6 per cent. and payable in tuition.

The minimum amount of the stock was fixed at $75,000, and the maximum at $500,000. In the charter, persons were named as commissioners, 43 in number, who were authorized to open books for subscriptions to the capital stock, and to continue the work until the minimum amount necessary to constitute the stockholders a corporation should be obtained. This charter became a law, and went into effect January 15, 1850. This may be considered the date of organization.

COMMISSIONERS.

The commissioners named in the charter held their first meeting in Christian Chapel, March 5, 1850, and at that time Ovid Butler was elected president of the board, and J. M. Bramwell, secretary. The chief purpose of this meeting was to organize and to adopt measures for secur-

ing subscriptions to the stock of the university. A committee of five was appointed, to whom the matter of obtaining subscriptions was intrusted.

On the 11th of October, 1850, Elder John O'Kane accepted the appointment of special soliciting agent for the university, and June 22, 1852, about 18 months from the time he entered the field, he turned over to the commissioners subscriptions of stock to the amount of $75,200. During this time he delivered about 300 discourses and visited 66 churches in Indiana alone.

Upon his removal from the State and retirement from the board, Reverend O'Kane received the approval and sincere thanks of the commissioners "for his great ability, indefatigable exertions, and untiring perseverance and industry in promoting the welfare of the university." The board of commissioners held their last meeting June 23, 1852.

CONSTRUCTIVE IDEAS.

The name of the college, given by its founders, was meant to be expressive of its import—expressive of the most important ideas which they sought to embody and perpetuate in this institution of learning. "North-Western" was adopted to emphasize the intention that the Ordinance of 1787, by which the great North-West was forever consecrated to freedom, should in its own domain be buttressed and supported by the invincible bulwarks of liberal education and catholic Christianity; that this college had for its purpose the inculcation of truth, the truth which makes all men free.

Another constructive idea, and which doubtless took precedence of all others, was, that this should be preëminently a Christian institution—not in any sectarian, illiberal, or even denominational sense—but should be broad, catholic, and philanthropic as Christianity itself. It is designed as a monument to the Author of Christianity.

Under the impulse of Christian benevolence, and of good-will to man, and for the honor of Christ, the work was undertaken. The conviction was entertained, that no education is sound enough, or broad enough, that does not inculcate the highest and most important of all truths—those which form the substructure of a true life.

By enlightened and pious princes, Oxford and Cambridge in Old England were founded, enriched with princely endowments, for the express purpose of giving without cost a liberal education to intelligent young men, for the service of the church; and at Cambridge in New England, only 18 years after the landing of the Pilgrims, a college was founded for the declared purpose of training an able and learned ministry; and to signify this purpose, they adopted the motto for that university, as it is to this day, "Pro Christo et Ecclesiæ"—for Christ and the church. With such educational traditions and tendencies, the North-Western Christian University was founded, in order to lay a broad foundation, and to give due emphasis and prominence to Christian scholarship, and as a protest against the increasing secularism of the time.

Another fundamental idea sought to be realized in this university was the liberal education of woman. At the time of the opening of the institution, the idea that woman needed or would be benefited by such an education was generally questioned, if not decried. No institution of college grade, East or West, with barely one exception, was willing to commit itself to the principle of coeducation of the sexes. The plan was generally derided as impracticable, and its advocates ridiculed as visionary. But with firm confidence in the wisdom, as well as the justice of this course, the projectors of this institution opened wide its doors to all who were qualified, regardless of sex.

In the days of obloquy and reproach, this university sought to make practical the idea of coeducation, before Antioch College was opened by Horace Mann, or any college in the West but Oberlin had given it endorsement, theoretically or practically.

In entire harmony with these broad and generous purposes of its founders, it was proposed to make this institution a university, a collection of colleges not only for general culture in literature, science and art, but for special, technical, and professional instruction in all the various pursuits of life. Perhaps sufficient consideration was not given to the teaching of experience that universities grow, they are not manufactured. They have a life developed by time and especially shaped by the circumstances that environ them. To this law of development the North-Western Christian University has been no exception. Ever true to its great constructive ideas, it has come by growth toward the realization of its original plans.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

The first board of directors, elected by the stockholders, under the the order of the commissioners, convened in Indianapolis, July 27, 1852, and of the 21 members elect, 19 responded to their names at this first meeting.

At this meeting Ovid Butler was elected as the first president of the board. Before the opening of the university proper, it was decided by the board of directors to open if possible a preparatory school in the university building, which was accordingly done on the 17th of April, 1855. A. R. Benton, having been already elected to the chair of languages, consented to conduct the school until the proper college work was begun. This school continued open during the summer of 1855, and until the university was formally opened for college classes, November 1, 1855. The corps of instructors the first year consisted of John Young, professor of natural sciences, and acting president; A. R. Benton, professor of ancient languages, and James R. Challen, principal of the preparatory department, assisted by Love H. Jameson.

Though beginning late in the college year, the number of students in all departments was 113, of which number three were graduated, having completed their course chiefly at another college. The first presi-

dent of the university was John Young, who was elected to that position in 1856, and resigned his position at the close of the college year in 1858. During his term of service he labored with great industry and zeal, not only in the class room but also by public addresses in order to give influence and prominence to the university. During his administration of three years there was a steady and healthful increase in the number of students, commencing with 113 and ending with 178, of which number 9 were graduated in the literary department, and 4 in the law school.

Samuel K. Hoshour was elected to the presidency of the institution July 2, 1858, and entered on the work assigned in September of the same year. He had long been identified with the cause of education in the State, a man of large and varied attainments, of extensive acquaintance throughout the West, and enjoying in an unusual degree the confidence of all classes and parties. During the three years of his incumbency as president, the number of students increased from 178 to 247, of which number 27 were graduates in the literary department and 18 in the law school.

At this point in the history of the university the late Civil War broke out. Students were enlisting in large numbers, the finances were deranged, and apprehension of national disaster was filling all hearts. In this emergency it became necessary to curtail expenses and to diminish the number of professors.

In the reorganization of the faculty to meet these new necessities, A. R. Benton was elected president of the faculty, in 1861, and continued in that position until the annual Commencement in June, 1868, a period of seven years.

Notwithstanding the alarms of war, and the distraction prevailing throughout the country, the first year of this administrative period reached the respectable number of 181; in 1866 the number had risen to 271, which, up to this time, was the highest number enrolled in the university, and the last year of this period, 1868, the students in attendance were 204.

The successor to A. R. Benton was Otis A. Burgess, who became president of the faculty in the fall of 1868. He had served for several years as pastor of the Central Christian Church, Indianapolis, was a preacher of unusual power, a laborious worker, and always had been a warm friend of the university.

Mr. Burgess resigned the presidency in 1870 to accept a call from a church in Chicago, and was succeeded by W. F. Black, the pastor of the Central Christian Church in Indianapolis. Elder Black continued to act in that capacity until the Commencement in 1873. During this period of three years the largest number was reached in the history of the institution; that of 1871 amounting to 345, but in 1873 and 1874 falling to 172.

In the summer of 1874 Elder O. A. Burgess was recalled as president

of the faculty. President Burgess died in 1881, and Prof. A. R. Benton was again called to the presidency, which he continues to occupy. President Benton had retired from the university to become a member of the faculty of Alliance College, Ohio. He was called from Alliance to the chancellorship of the University of Nebraska, which institution he organized in the fall of 1871. This position he occupied for five years, when he returned to the North-Western Christian University as professor of mental and moral science.

In 1873 the institution was removed to Irvington, four miles from Indianapolis. By this removal the university secured the liberal donation of 25 acres of land for a campus and $150,000 for the erection of new college buildings. The ground of the old campus was sold in city lots, and from this source $163,000 were added to the endowment fund of the university. The present endowment is about $300,000, the greater part of which came from the liberality of Ovid Butler in honor of whom the university is named.

From the opening of the institution in 1855 to the present time there have been enrolled as matriculates of the university over 5,000 students, nearly one-fifth of whom have been women.

In its various departments the university has enjoyed the instruction of men whose names are prominent among the educators of Indiana. Among these are G. W. Hoss, W. M. Thrasher, Ryland T. Brown, Alfred Fairhurst, H. W. Wiley and D. S. Jordan.

ENDOWMENTS.

Generous men have contributed liberally to endow chairs in the institution. The Demia Butler chair was established by Ovid Butler in 1869, as a memorial to his daughter, who was the first lady graduate. One of the conditions in the establishment of this chair was that it should be filled in perpetuity by a woman. Mr. Butler's desire was to give an emphatic recognition of the rights of woman to occupy any position for which she is qualified. Miss Catherine Merrill was elected as the first professor of this chair—which position she accepted—April 21, 1869. The chair is now filled by Miss Harriet Noble.

Jeremy H. Anderson, in 1872, endowed the chair of Greek language and literature with the sum of $20,000.

COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT.

Since 1870 there has been maintained in connection with the university a department of business, in which commercial calculations, bookkeeping, and methods of business are taught.

The change in the name of the university was made February 28, 1877, after full deliberation by the board of directors. They adopted the name "Butler University" in honor of him who had given largely to its endowment, and who for twenty years had given a large part of his time to its interests.

THE FACULTY IN 1890.

Allen R. Benton, LL. D., *President, and Professor of Mental Science and Biblical Literature.*
William M. Thrasher, A. M., *Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy.*
Harriet Noble, A. M., *Demia Butler Professor of English Language and Literature.*
Scott Butler, A. M., *Professor of Latin Language and Literature.*
Oliver P. Hay, A. M., Ph. D., *Professor of Natural History and Geology.*
Hugh C. Garvin, A. M., *Professor of Modern Languages and Literature.*
Demarchus C. Brown, A. M., *Anderson Professor of Greek Language and Literature.*
Thomas M. Iden, Ph. M., *Professor of Chemistry and Physics.*
T. J. McAvoy, *Professor of Elocution and Oratory.*
Hugh T. Miller, A. B., *Instructor in German and French.*
Thomas C. Howe, A. B., *Instructor in German and Latin.*
Henry T. Mann and India Martz, *Tutors.*

Three courses of study are offered to the students of the university—the classical, scientific, and philosophical. These courses lead to the bachelor's degree respectively in arts, science, and philosophy. Advanced courses are provided, leading to the master's degree. A preparatory course of two years is also provided. Graduates of high schools, whose course of study is approved by the State board of education, are admitted without examination.

The library of the university contains about 5,000 volumes, valuable and well selected books. The reading room of the library contains the most desirable periodicals of Europe and America, and is daily accessible to students.

The apparatus in chemistry and physics is adequate to usual college work, in many respects extensive and full. The laboratories in chemistry and natural history are well supplied.

CHAPTER XI.

THE DENOMINATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.—(CONTINUED.)

FRANKLIN COLLEGE.—HISTORICAL SKETCH.[1]

Professor Haugham, for many years a teacher in Franklin College, and who well understands the social development of Indiana during the first years of her history, says:

"Many of the pioneers of this State were the sons and daughters of those who introduced civilization into the borders of Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and the Carolinas; neither the memory nor the fireside traditions of these people extend backward to a time when their progenitors were not pioneers.

"Thus they formed habits of acting and thinking peculiarly their own. They acknowledged few conventionalities. * * * Few of them had enjoyed the advantages of a liberal education. * * * As a consequence * * * soon many thousands of native adults could neither read nor write.

"If this was so in general, it was especially so among Baptists.

"The demand for ministeral labor was so great in those days that many were solemnly consecrated to the work of preaching who could hardly read a hymn or a chapter in the Bible intelligibly, and it is believed that some were pressed into service * * * who could not read a word when they began to 'exercise their gifts.' Many preachers brought forth by these throes of the churches were full-grown at birth. They ordinarily ranged themselves into two classes: First, those who, distrustful of themselves because they had few resources to draw upon, went humbly forward, groping and feeling for the ways of truth in an uncertain twilight, but with a faith sublime in its primitive simplicity that reached upward and took hold of the omnipotent arm; and secondly, those who were but too faithfully personated and not caricatured by the inimitable man who 'played on a harp of a thousand strings, sperits of just men made perfeck.'

"The more sagacious and pious of the denomination, looking forward, * * * saw little hope for themselves as a Christian organization, unless some powerful conservative influence could be brought to bear upon their interests."

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[1] By Professor John W. Moncrief, Franklin College.

These were reinforced by large-minded men, of various degrees of culture, moving in from the Eastern States. It was in the midst of circumstances like these that a number of Baptist ministers and laymen met, June 5, 1834, at Indianapolis to form an "educational society," and this is the inception of what is now Franklin College. Those who attended this meeting were natives of 6 States. Four of Massachusetts (1 a graduate of Amherst College), 2 of Pennsylvania, 2 of North Carolina, 2 of Kentucky, 1 of New York, 1 of Tennessee. If amalgamation gives strength, Franklin College received strength at the first meeting of these founders. And surely strength was needed, for it did not require the gift of prophecy to see that the college about to come into being was fated to pass through a struggle which was for many years to render its future a matter of extreme doubt.

After some competition it was decided to locate the school at Franklin. Two years later, a "frame house 26 by 38 feet, one story high," had been erected. But since it seemed impossible for the trustees to get a "suitable teacher," the building was rented for a private school.

It was not until autumn 1837 that the trustees secured the services of the Rev. Albert Freeman Tilton, a native of Deerfield, N. H., and a graduate of Waterville College, now Colby University, Maine. Mr. Tilton is described as a "tall, manly man of superior natural and acquired abilities," who was a successful teacher, but who "undertook more than any one mortal could accomplish."

The institution was called "The Indiana Baptist Manual Labor Institute," and "it was just what its name imports. The young men who came to seek instruction built log huts in which to live and study; and with their own hands cut cord wood and made barrels to pay their necessary expenses."[1]

About 1844 the name of the institution was changed to Franklin College; a college charter was secured; and college instruction began under the presidency of the Rev. George C. Chandler, a graduate of Madison University, New York.

From the first, the idea of scholarship was high, and the course of instruction was equal to that of other colleges in the West. In the earliest catalogues we read that "the design of this institution is to teach men to think independently and correctly." "We want no loungers here; therefore it is hoped that the indolent, careless, and dissipated will not seek admittance. If any wish only the name of being in college, or the honor of receiving a diploma, we hope they will seek this in some other place."

Everything indicates that, notwithstanding shortness of funds and fewness of students, the college has stood fearlessly and firmly by these statements.

In 1843 a building 84 by 40 feet and three stories high was begun. "During the whole time of its erection, the board was using the trowel

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[1] History of Franklin College, in a sketch by President W. T. Stott, p. 1.

or hammer with one hand, and warding off impatient creditors with the other. Various were the expedients resorted to in order to procure money. Goods and wares donated to the college were sold either at Franklin or in different parts of the State. At one time the board consulted the county commissioners and took legal advice on the subject of peddling clocks donated to the college; clock peddling in those days the essence of evil in the eyes of the law."[1] But at last, in 1847, the building was completed and paid for. The first degree of A. B. was conferred in 1847. But after various successes and failures President Chandler grew weary and resigned. The two succeeding years were full of gloom.

In 1852 Dr. Silas Bailey was elected to the presidency. Dr. Bailey, a native of Massachusetts, a graduate of Brown University, a man of ripe scholarship and profound thought, came to the rescue, and his magnificent powers were exhausted in the college which he soon learned to love better than his own life. There was very marked improvement under Dr. Bailey's administration. A second building similar to the first was erected at a cost of over $7,000. Endowment increased, the college was rapidly winning the respect of both the thinking and the unthinking. But in 1862 failing health necessitated Dr. Bailey's resignation. Immediately a feeling of insecurity began to grow, and in June, 1864, it seemed best to "suspend the exercises until such time as in the judgment of the board it may be proper to resume operations." Among the causes of this collapse may be enumerated (1) the apathy of the natural constituency; (2) the difficulty of collecting subscriptions to the endowment; (3) the great Civil War, which drew largely upon the young men in attendance and unsettled the finances of the whole country; (4) and not least, the question of location had been raised and debated in a spirit too mildly expressed by the word "earnestness." The college suffered greatly from this division, which lasted until very recently.

In 1867 Professor Hill began the work of reviving the college. He conducted a very successful school until the board assumed full control again in 1869, with Professor Stott acting president.

In 1870 Dr. H. L. Wayland, son of President Wayland, of Brown University, was elected president. Various schemes for endowment failed. Dr. Wayland "was a most earnest and able instructor. His noble generosity inspired all his pupils. His ideas were broad and progressive. That he did not succeed was not that he lacked earnestness or power, but patience to abide the slow development of the State.": He resigned in January, 1872. At the same time the board resolved[2] "That so far as teaching is concerned the college is suspended." But the Baptists of Indiana did not intend to allow Franklin College to die.

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[1] Jubilee paper of W. C. Thompson, pp. 36–7.

[2] President Stott's Historical Sketch, p. 10.

This last suspension left the board in debt $13,000, and the college grounds were sold at sheriff's sale to The Franklin College Association. This time one of her own sons, Dr. William T. Stott, a native of Indiana, was chosen president, and the school was opened in September, 1872.

President Stott thoroughly understood from the start the peculiarities of Indiana people. His caution amounts to conservatism, but he has in a large degree the faculty of "conservative innovation," which Mr. Bagehot defines to be "the gift of matching new institutions to old."[1]

School opened with a faculty of three. From the first there was such enthusiasm that, notwithstanding difficulties, it was evident that the struggle for existence was over and that the question was simply one of extension. From then till now the college has slowly but steadily grown. The number of friends has rapidly increased. Each year has found a larger number of students than the preceding year. The courses of study have been changed and enlarged and have been fully equal to the courses in other Indiana colleges. The assets have grown from $78,000 in 1873 to $207,434.89 in 1888. The old-style buildings have been completely outgrown, and in 1887 a large and commodious building, with all modern improvements, was begun and is expected to be ready for use in September, 1888. The library has grown from a few hundred volumes in 1873 to nearly 6,000 volumes. At the organization of the college there were chairs of intellectual and moral philosophy, Greek and Latin combined, mathematics and natural philosophy combined, and a lecturer on chemistry, which was dropped after two years. All these departments were well manned. In 1853–'54 a chair of agricultural chemistry and kindred sciences was added, and so the departments remained until the suspension, in 1864.

In the first year after revival the only departments were intellectual and moral philosophy and mathematics. The work of the other departments was distributed among professors and tutors. But in 1875–'76 the department of natural science was organized. Greek and Latin have been separated into two distinct departments. But in 1877–'78 the chair of natural sciences is again vacant, to be occupied, 1878–'79, by a professor of geology and chemistry, to drop again, 1879–'80, into the management of a tutor who was to be made professor in 1883. This ends the vicissitudes of the scientific department. It has grown rapidly of late, and in June, 1887, the chair of chemistry and physics was created. There are, then, by recent action of the board, two departments in natural science, biology, and chemistry and physics.

In August, 1881, the board, in view of the growing interest in historical research and the wide application of historical methods, established the chair of history, and in 1888 created a separate department of modern languages. Thus at present there are eight organized departments.

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[1] Physics and Politics, p. 81.

The faculty in 1890 was as follows:

Rev. William T. Stott, D. D., *President, and Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy.*

Rev. Columbus H. Hall, B. D., *Vice President, and Professor of Greek Language and Literature.*

Miss Rebecca J. Thompson, A. M., *Professor of Mathematics.*

Wellington B. Johnson, A. M., *Professor of Chemistry and Physics.*

David A. Owen, A. M., *Professor of Biology.*

Rev. Francis W. Brown, A. M., *Professor of Latin Language and Literature.*

John W. Moncrief, A. M., *Professor of History.*

C. E. Goodell, A. B., *Instructor in Modern Languages.*

Mrs. Arabella R. Stott, *Instructor in Painting and Drawing.*

James M. Dungan, *Instructor in Music, Instrumental and Vocal.*

The following are the principal officers of the board of directors:

Hon. James L. Bradley, *President*, Indianapolis.

J. T. Polk, *Vice President*, Greenwood.

Dr. Barnett Wallace, *Treasurer*, Franklin.

Rev. Norman Carr, *Financial Secretary*, Franklin.

It is perhaps interesting to run over the list of institutions whose graduates have been teachers in Franklin College. She has taken many of her teachers from her own alumni and alumnæ, but among the other institutions that have given her teachers are Brown University, Michigan University, Princeton College, Colby University, Denison University, Asbury (now DePauw) University, Young Ladies' Institute (Granville, Ohio), Georgetown College (Kentucky), University of Chicago, Kalamazoo College, University of Leipsic, Germany, and perhaps others. It is believed that something of what is distinctively good in each of these institutions has entered into the conception of Franklin College.

It is the firm conviction of the present faculty that it must keep in close connection with other faculties, and that a professor can best do his own work by frequently seeing how other professors in his line do their work. Hence the president and the board encourage members of the faculty frequently to visit other colleges and universities and to attend the great national associations of specialists which meet from year to year.

Franklin College has never claimed the rank of the university. She is absolutely clear in her conviction that she is only a college; that her business is to give a liberal education; that in her Junior and Senior years she may start specialists for the universities in our country or in Europe, but that she can not *make* specialists.

It is but just to say further that while Franklin College is under the control of the Baptist denomination she is not and never has been narrowly sectarian. Members of other denominations and persons of no denomination have been on her board. Some of these have been her truest friends and wisest counselors. Among her students have been

and are members of the various Protestant sects, and of late years Roman Catholics have been in regular attendance.

To any one looking over the records of this college the conviction must abide that, all things considered, the progress has been remarkable; that while the area of its operations has been small, the heroism of its founders and early workers has been genuine and great.

It may be said, that although the college is 53 years old, it has only a beginning; but the beginning is well made. It remains for the college faithfully to do its part in advancing the civilization of its own commonwealth and the world; and it will find reward of honest work in steady growth.

Hanover College, Hanover, Ind.[1]

Hanover College is an institution under the care of the Synod of the Presbyterian Church in Indiana.

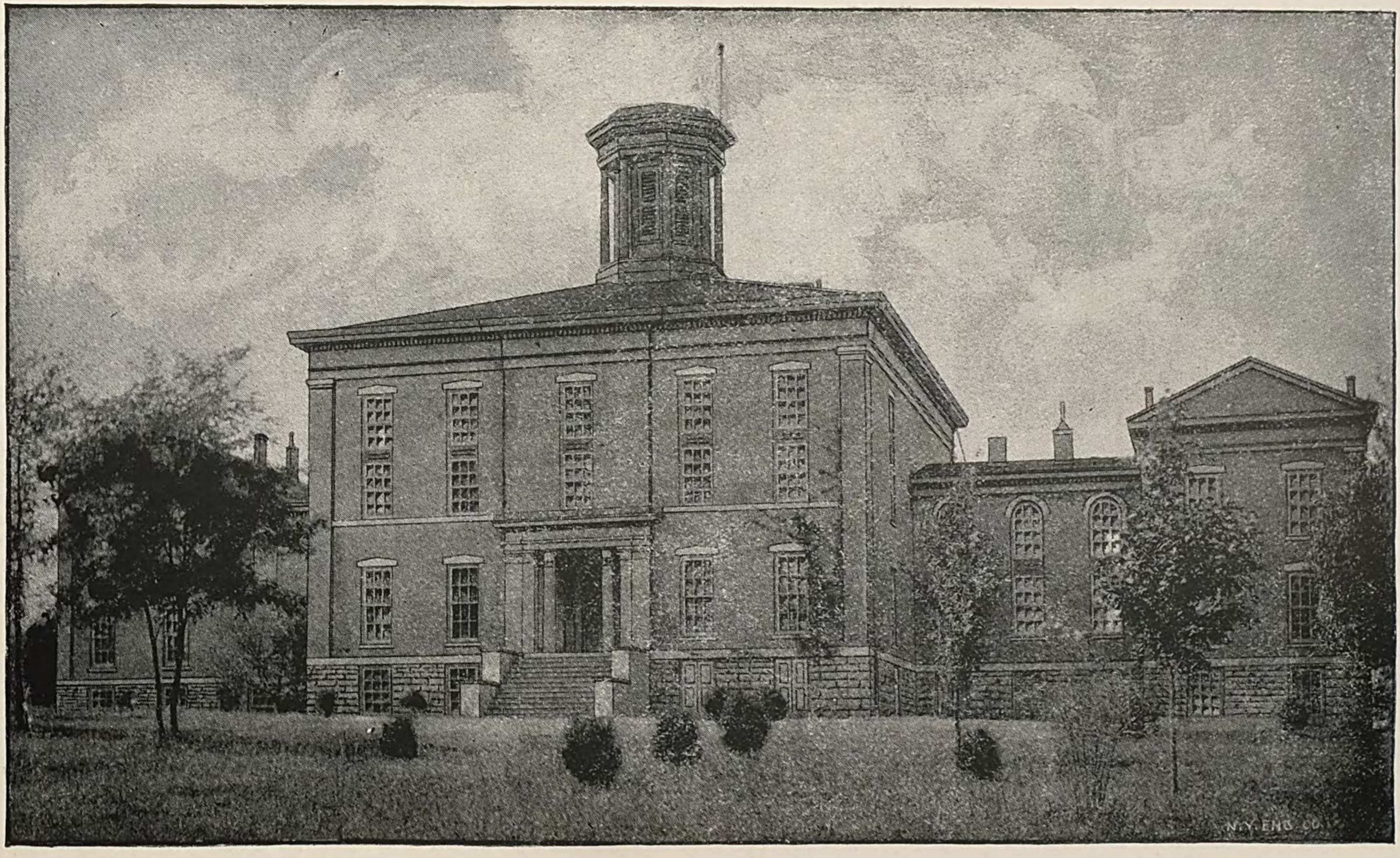
It was the outgrowth of a desire on the part of this church to provide itself with an educated ministry, which could not at that early day be obtained from the East. With this in view, the Presbytery of Salem, which embraced Indiana and Illinois and was connected with the Synod of Kentucky, in 1826 requested the pastor of the church at Hanover, Rev. John Finley Crowe, to open and conduct an academy until further provision could be made. Hanover contained one of the largest congregations in the Presbytery, and was easy of access by the river.

Mr. Crowe having consented to make the experiment, opened a grammar school January 1, 1827. This school, which consisted of six boys, was held in a log cabin on Mr. Crowe's own premises. Four of these six boys afterwards became ministers of the Gospel.

When in May, 1826, the Synod of Indiana was constituted, the care of the proposed school at Hanover was transferred by the Presbytery of Salem to that of Madison. This Presbytery applied to the legislature of the State for a charter, and that body passed an act December 30, 1828, incorporating Hanover Academy. The next year the academy was taken under the care of the Synod of Indiana, on condition "that the trustees of the academy will permit the Synod to establish a theological department and appoint theological professors."

This condition was readily granted, and the Synod at once unanimously elected Rev. John Matthews, D. D., of Shepherdstown, Va., to the chair of theology. Dr. Matthews accepted the appointment, but before removing to Hanover secured the support for five years of an additional professor and a number of volumes for the library. The theological department was continued at Hanover for ten years, when it was removed to New Albany in 1840, and from thence, in 1859, to Chicago, Ill., and is now known by the name of the McCormick Theological Seminary. Dr. Matthews remained with the seminary till his

[1] By Prof. J. B. Garritt, Hanover College.



No. 20.—COLLEGE BUILDING, HANOVER.

death in 1848. There were associated with him at various times five other professors, among whom were Rev. Dr. L. W. Green and Rev. Dr. James Wood. During the continuance of this department at Hanover forty ministers received their theological training in it.

In the meantime the academy had been steadily growing. The 6 students had become 20 in 1828, and in 1832 there were 70 in attendance. A full course of study was adopted, identical with that of Miami University, Ohio, and regular classes were formed. A building 25 by 40 feet, and two stories high, had been erected in 1829; but this was soon found too small, and in 1832, anticipating their charter by a few months, the college building was erected. It was 100 feet by 40, and three stories high, so placed that the former building became its east wing.

The same year, also in anticipation of their charter, the Rev. James Blythe, D. D., of Lexington, Ky., extensively known throughout the church, was elected the first president. Three weeks after his inauguration in 1833, the institution was incorporated as Hanover College.

The first catalogue issued after the incorporation presents for all departments a faculty of 7 professors and 4 assistants, with 183 students; 7 theological, 63 collegiate, 113 preparatory.

While the institution was still an academy its directors had, in 1829, adopted the manual labor system as a means of obtaining and supporting students. For this purpose Dr. Crowe and Judge Williamson McKee Dunn gave each 50 acres of land for a farm. Carpenter, cooper, and wagon-maker shops were erected, and printing presses were obtained, and the students were required to spend a portion of time each day in labor. So remarkable was the success of the college under this plan in gaining students, that the catalogue of 1834–5 shows an aggregate of 236 students. But the manual labor system was financially a failure. It involved the college in a heavy debt, and had to be abandoned.

In 1836 the venerable Dr. Blythe resigned the presidency. His successor, a Dr. McAulay, proved an "impostor." This fact, with the destruction of a college building by a tornado, and the pressure of "hard times" in the West from 1837 to 1843, made the following years a time of trial and difficulty, and the attendance materially decreased owing to these causes.

The third president of the college was Rev. Dr. E. D. McMaster. He was elected in 1838 and brought to the position eminent talents, ripe scholarship, and great executive ability. He introduced, with the agreement of the board, a law department. Judge Miles C. Eggleston was elected professor of law, accepted, and remained in the college for several years.

The presidency of Dr. McMaster continued for five years and was terminated in a movement which almost destroyed the college. Dissatisfied with the condition of things at Hanover, disappointed in the small

number of students, and thinking it impossible to build up his ideal institution at Hanover, he induced a majority of the board to adopt a resolution to surrender their charter to the legislature in return for the charter of a university at Madison. Madison, at that time, was looked upon as the future metropolis of southern Indiana. This change was made in 1843, and, a suitable building having been obtained, the president and professors (except Dr. Crowe) and about sixty of the students, with the libraries and apparatus, removed to Madison and commenced operations under the name "Madison University."

Dr. Crowe had been strongly opposed to this movement. He could not, with equanimity, see the toils, hopes, and prayers of eighteen years coming to naught, and so, at the earnest solicitation of friends of the college, he immediately, in January, 1844, opened in the college building (which he had bought in when exposed for sale by the Madison University) "The Hanover Classical and Mathematical Academy."

A charter was soon obtained, and before the close of the year, in September, a large number of students had returned and all the college classes were formed again. He was able to publish a catalogue with 72 students in attendance, and the following faculty: Rev. J. F. Crowe, Chairman of Faculty, and Professor of Political Economy; S. Harrison Thompson, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Sciences; Minard Sturgus, Professor of Ancient Languages; F. Eckstein, Professor of Modern Languages; Rev. T. W. Hyner, Associate Professor of Mathematics and Languages.

In the fall both institutions were offered to the Synod of Indiana, to be taken under its care. The Synod gave the preference to Hanover, thus a second time adopting it as their college. In December, 1844, a new charter was obtained, conferring the powers of a university, and placing the college under the oversight of the Synod of Indiana, by giving it the power of appointing one-half of the board of trustees.

In 1846, Rev. Dr. Sylvester Scovel, of New Albany, was elected president. The transfer of the institution to Madison had stripped it of everything except the college building. It needed library, apparatus, and endowment. Dr. Scovel, with the assistance of Dr. Crowe, soon raised an endowment of $40,000. President Scovel died in 1849, but not until he had succeeded in starting the college again on a prosperous career. He was succeeded by Rev. Dr. Thos. E. Thomas, who served from 1849 to 1854. During Dr. Thomas's presidency the attendance was greater than at any previous time, and the board was induced to begin the erection of the present building. This building was begun too early, for the financial condition of the college involved the board in debt from which it did not soon recover.

Rev. Jonathan Edwards, D. D., one of the earliest graduates of the college, a gentleman of the highest talents and culture, was president from 1855 to 1857; and Rev. James Wood, D. D., who had in former years been Professor of Biblical Literature in the theological depart-

ment, and was widely known and honored in the church, from 1859 to 1866.

If the efficiency of the college is to be measured by the work done in its walls, these years will bear comparison with any in its history. The high standard of duty and scholarship was firmly maintained. But they were not years of prosperity, if that is to be measured by the number of students in attendance, 160 in 1855 and in 1868 only 56. This decrease was caused by the debt on the college, resulting in uncertainty as to its future, and by the approach of civil war. A large part of the patronage of the college was from the Southern States. Thirty-one per cent. of its students were from the South in 1853; in 1860 it had only two students south of Kentucky.

During the years 1867 and 1868, the college had no president, but its work was carried on by three Professors, viz: S. H. Thomson, Dr. J. W. Scott, and J. B. Garritt. By teaching six hours per day, they were enabled to accomplish the entire work of instruction.

From 1869 up to the present time, the college has been making steady advancement, notwithstanding difficulties and perhaps mistakes.

The timely benefactions of its friends enabled the trustees to increase its faculty and to elect a president. Rev. Geo. D. Archibald, D. D., became president in 1868, and remained two years; Rev. Geo. C. Heckman, D. D., was president from 1870 till 1874; and on his resignation, Rev. D. W. Fisher, D. D., was elected, who is still at his post in the college. The average number of students during these years has been 130.

The first year of Dr. Heckman's administration was signalized by the adoption of the policy of free tuition. It was based upon the endowment of the college, and was designed to make education in a church college as free as in that of the State.

In 1880, the college in all its departments was with great unanimity opened to women. The experience of the years which have passed since then is such as to confirm the wisdom of this step. During these years, too, marked advance has also been made in the curriculum of studies, especially in the departments of history, literature, modern languages, and natural sciences; so that it is believed that the course of study is now equal to that of any college in the State.

CLASSICAL COURSE.

The classical course is in substance identical with that which is generally adopted in the best American colleges. It is strongly recommended as the more complete preparation for the profession of teaching and post-graduate studies in law, medicine, theology, and science of all kinds. Graduates in this course receive the degree of Bachelor of Arts. students who enter this course are also at liberty to take special studies of the scientific course, so far as this may be practicable.

SCIENTIFIC COURSE.

The scientific course requires the same time as the classical, and differs from it mainly by the substitution of German and additional studies in physical science and mathematics, for the Greek. Graduates in the course receive the degree of Bachelor of Science. German is begun in the Freshman class and is completed in the Sophomore class.

ELECTIVES.

In the advanced classes, when it is thought to be best and is practicable, an election within certain limits is allowed as to studies. The studies chosen must always be in amount and character sufficient to place the respective sections of the classes as nearly as possible on an equality as to work required. For most purposes the election between the classical and scientific courses is all that is desirable.

The college now has a faculty of the president and six professors; it has libraries of 10,000 volumes, which are open daily and in daily use; a well selected scientific apparatus and a good cabinet. It is out of debt and has an income sufficient to meet its present expenses, and is in a better condition to do a good work for the church, the world, and for God than ever before. It has 625 graduates, and at least 400 students have been wholly or in part educated within its walls.

It will be proper in closing this sketch to mention the names of a few who have aided the cause of higher education through Hanover College. First among them is its founder, Dr. John Finley Crowe, D. D., "who for more than thirty years with heroic benevolence, self-denial, and fortitude identified his time, talents, and interests with the cause of education in our church." Intimately associated with him was Judge Williamson Dunn, who was among the founders of both Hanover and Wabash Colleges. Mrs. Mary T. Lapsley, of New Albany, has been the most munificent benefactor of the college; but with her deserve to be named Rev. William A. Holliday, of Indianapolis, John King, esq., of Madison, Rev. James M'Kee, D. D., of Georgia, and Mrs. Sarah Donnell, of Greensburgh, Ind. "A like spirit animated, and still animates, many others of smaller means, whose names will not be forgotten in the early annals of Presbyterian education in Indiana."

FACULTY, HANOVER COLLEGE, 1890.

D. W. Fisher, D. D., LL. D., *President, Holliday Professor of Logic and Mental Philosophy, and Crowe Memorial Professor of Biblical Instruction.*

NOTE.—The following are the sources for a full history of the college: 1. Minutes of the board of trustees and of the faculty. 2. The catalogues of the college, especially the general catalogue published in 1883. 3. Various sketches of college history: (a) in Hanover Miscellany, April, 1834; (b) appeal of Dr. Crowe, 1858; (c) Semi-Centennial Sketch by Dr. Heckman, 1876; (d) the general catalogue. 4. History of the College (manuscript) by Dr. Crowe, from the beginning till 1849.

Rev. Joshua B. Garritt, A. M., Ph. D., *King Professor of Greek Language and Literature, and Secretary of the Faculty.*
Frank Lyford Morse, A. M., Ph. D., *Silas C. Day Professor of Mathematics.*
A. Harvey Young, A. M., Ph. D., *Ayers Professor of Natural Sciences.*
Rev. A. P. Keil, A. M., *Mary Edward Hamilton Professor of Latin and Modern Languages.*
Rev. John F. Baird, A. M., *James A. M'Kee Professor of Ethics and Christian Evidences.*
Rev. Alexander S. Hunter, A. M., *Professor of Physics and Astronomy.*
George P. Hays, D. D., LL. D., *Lecturer Extraordinary on English Constitutional Law.*
John DeWitt, D. D., LL. D., *Lecturer Extraordinary on History.*
John Jay Francis, *Lecturer Extraordinary on English Literature.*
——— ———, *Teacher of Piano and Organ.*
J. Q. Donnell, A. M., *Lecturer Extraordinary on Political Economy.*
James C. Nelson, *Tutor.*
Alexander Hartman, *Tutor.*
Leila A. Garritt, *Librarian.*

STUDENTS.

Post-Graduates.—Eva M. Fitzgerald, B. S., Hanover; Ida M. Hennessy, B. S., Madison. Post-gradutes, 2.

Earlham College.—Historical Sketch.[1]

QUAKER ELEMENT.

In the early settlement of eastern Indiana the Friends constituted a large and influential element of the population.

Richmond, the seat of Earlham College, from its first founding has been characteristically a Quaker city. Indiana Yearly Meeting, including originally in its membership all the Friends of the Ohio Valley, was organized here in 1821 and has continued to make Richmond the place of its annual session.

SYSTEMATIC MEASURES FOR EDUCATION.

As early as 1829, a quarter of a century before the inauguration of the free public schools in Indiana, this body took definite steps toward the establishment of a system of schools for the general education of the children of its members. Thus there came into existence among the population of the then new States of Indiana and Ohio, numerous schools of both primary and academic grade, under Quaker control, and patronized both by Friends and the general public.

Nine flourishing academies, with courses of study preparatory to Earlham College, are still maintained in Indiana, Ohio, southern Michigan, and eastern Illinois, as monuments of this enterprising educational spirit which characterized the early Friends in these States.

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[1] By President J. J. Mills.

In 1832 the first movement was made by Indiana Yearly Meeting toward the founding of a boarding school of high grade which should stand as the head of this wide-spread system of denominational schools. The limited means of these pioneer people together with their desire to cultivate habits of thrift and independence in their children led them to incorporate into the plan of the proposed boarding school a provision for manual labor by the students. Accordingly a large tract of land was secured as the first step towards the establishment of the school. The industrial theory was soon found to be impracticable and was abandoned, but to it Earlham now owes an exceptionally fine campus and an ample athletic field. The whole amount of land now belonging to the college is 120 acres.

GROWTH.

After six years of effort to raise the necessary funds for the erection of a suitable building for the school, work was begun with a nucleus of less than $6,000. Throughout its history, aside from the income from tuition fees, the institution has been dependent upon private contributions for its support and material development. Not less than 3,000 names in America and Great Britain are found upon its list of benefactors. Within the last three years, the friends of the college have been especially liberal in their aid and the present estimated value of its grounds and buildings, apparatus and invested funds is $200,000.

The school was opened in June, 1847, and was maintained as a boarding school of exceptionally high standard until 1859, when it received a charter from the State under the name of "Earlham College." A department of preparatory instruction has, up to the present time, been maintained in connection with the college.

The numerical increase of the Friends in the Central States having led to the establishment of Western Yearly Meeting, embracing the membership of the church west of the center of Indiana, that body in 1879, by invitation, joined Indiana Yearly Meeting in the management of the college, so that it is now under the joint control of the largest two bodies of Friends on the American continent.

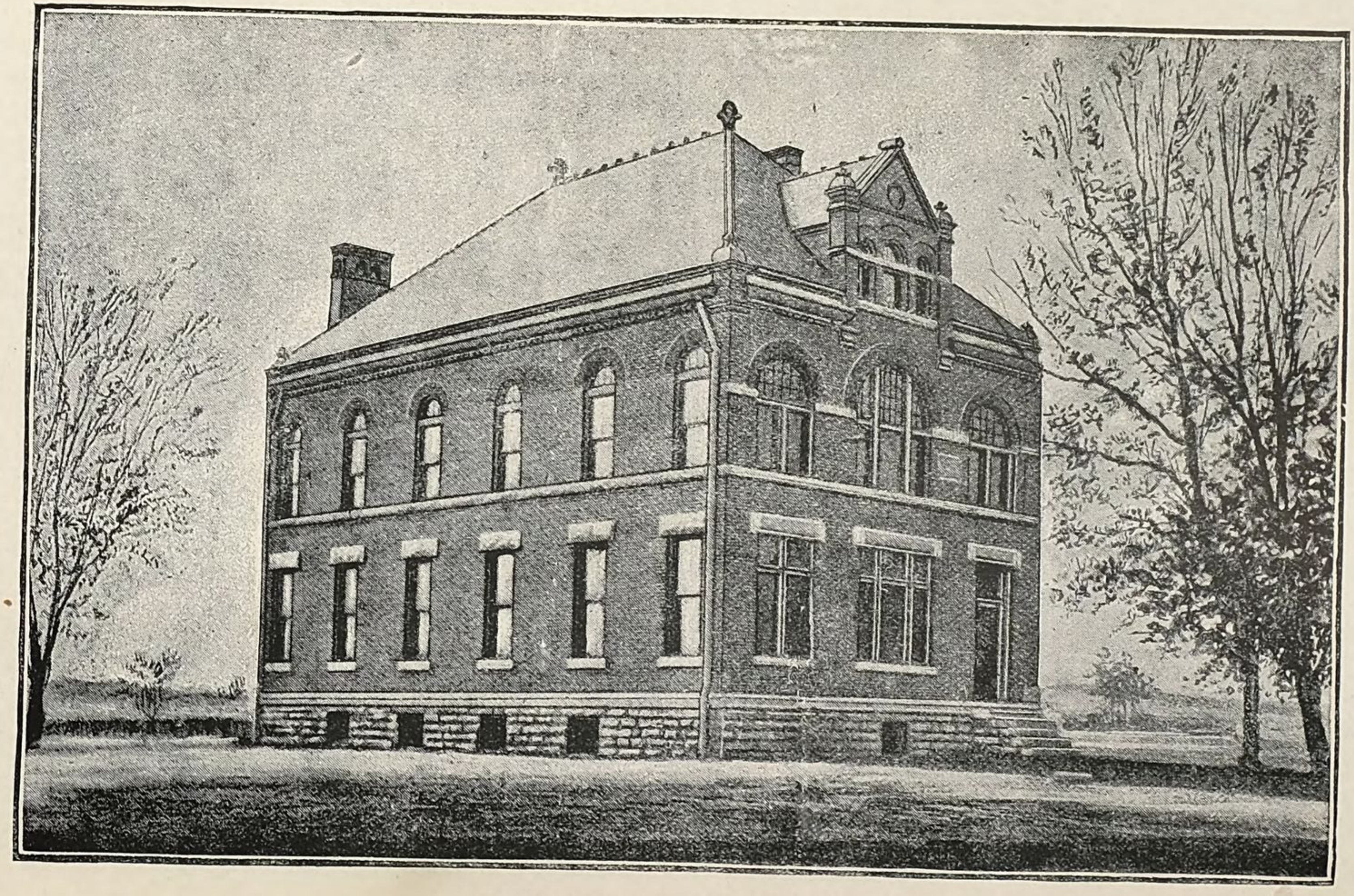
During the forty years of its existence as boarding school and college, about 5,000 students have been in attendance upon Earlham's classes. Of these more than 20 per cent. have been engaged as teachers in public and private schools and colleges.

Two hundred students have been graduated from the college. The number of students of full college standing in 1886–'87 was 144, of whom 20 were in the Senior class.

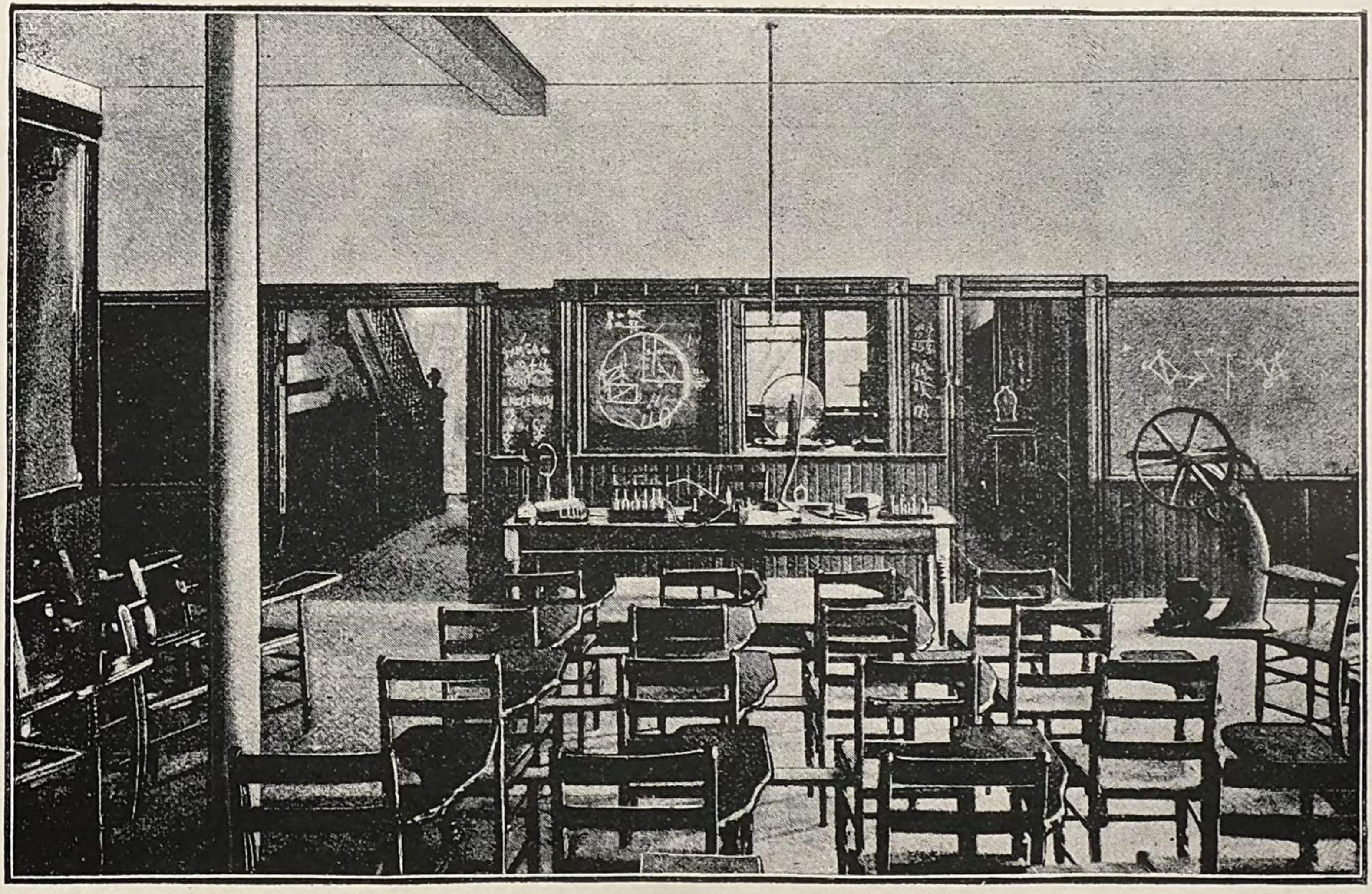
COEDUCATION.

Earlham was a pioneer in the work of coeducation in this country. Students of both sexes were admitted at the opening of Friends Boarding School.

The first class graduated from the college (in 1862) was composed of



No. 27.—EARLHAM COLLEGE: PARRY HALL.



No. 28.—EARLHAM COLLEGE: LECTURE ROOM, PARRY HALL.

one man and one woman. Thirty per cent. of the graduates have been women.

Although under denominational control, Earlham is in no sense a sectarian college. The expressed design of its founders, to provide for the "guarded religious education" of youth, survives as one of the distinguishing characteristics of the institution.

The religious instruction within the college has always been of a positive character and in harmony with evangelical Christian doctrine.

But in connection with the religious work of the college there has never been the slightest admixture of proselyting influences. The courses of study and the instruction have at all times been such as to stimulate a spirit of broad and impartial research in every department of truth.

The college faculty is at present composed of eleven professors. Associated with these are seven teachers in the departments of preparatory instruction, music and painting. The total number of officers and instructors is twenty-two.

EQUIPMENT.

Four buildings accommodate the several departments of the college. Lindley Hall, erected in 1888, is a substantial three-story brick and stone structure of modern design, with a frontage of 174 feet and depth of 159 feet. It contains the President's office, a cabinet 61 by 70 with balcony on three sides and a professor's private work-room immediately adjoining; a biological laboratory 24 by 40 with adjoining private work-room, a library and reading room 33 by 61 with alcoves; 15 large class rooms; an art gallery 60 by 38 with two alcoves; 4 rooms for the department of music; two large literary society halls; a ladies' gymnasium; and an auditorium having a seating capacity of 1,100.

The biological laboratory in Lindley Hall is furnished with an excellent microtome, fifteen compound microscopes (Bausch and Lomb model), and a good supply of accessory apparatus.

THE CABINET.

Some idea of the extent and usefulness of the cabinet may be gained from the following inventory:

(*a*) Twenty complete and well-mounted skeletons, including the skeleton of a large elephant, of a lion, of a horse, of an eagle, and of a python 16 feet in length.

(*b*) Two hundred and thirty-five stuffed and mounted birds and animals.

(*c*) Five hundred and ninety species of shells.

(*d*) Six hundred specimens of coral, mainly from the Sandwich Islands—many of them very fine.

(*e*) Three hundred and sixty-two specimens of volcanic origin.

(*f*) Two hundred and fifty archæological specimens, exclusive of arrow-heads.

(*g*) Fifteen hundred paleontological species.

(*h*) One thousand and twenty minerals and ores.

(*i*) One hundred and fifty botanical species not belonging to the vicinity.

(*j*) A collection of nearly twelve hundred coins. A few of these are ancient, including some Roman copper coins of great value. Some are mediæval, but the larger portion of the collection is made up of modern coins. Almost all parts of the civilized world are represented. There are fine collections of English, French, German, Spanish, Mexican, Italian, Turkish, and Egyptian coins, both gold and silver. Nearly all the German and South American States are represented; also the early North American colonies, China, and Japan.

(*k*) The Earlham College Missionary Society's collection of miscellaneous articles from various missionary fields. This includes interesting and valuable specimens from Palestine, Africa, Madagascar, Jamaica, Mexico, China, and other lands.

(*l*) One thousand miscellaneous specimens, including textile fabrics, implements, ornaments, weapons, etc., from the Sandwich Islands; heathen idols from various parts of the world, and other objects of educational value.

The college has a fairly good working-library of 5,000 volumes. This is supplemented by the 10,000 volumes in the Morrison Library of Richmond, to which students have free access.

Parry Hall contains a laboratory of analytical chemistry, with working tables and complete equipments for 44 students; a balance room; a physical laboratory well supplied with apparatus; a battery room; two rooms for professors, and an admirably arranged lecture room with seats for 150 students.

The astronomical observatory is a small unpretentious building, but affords good facilities for the practical study of astronomy.

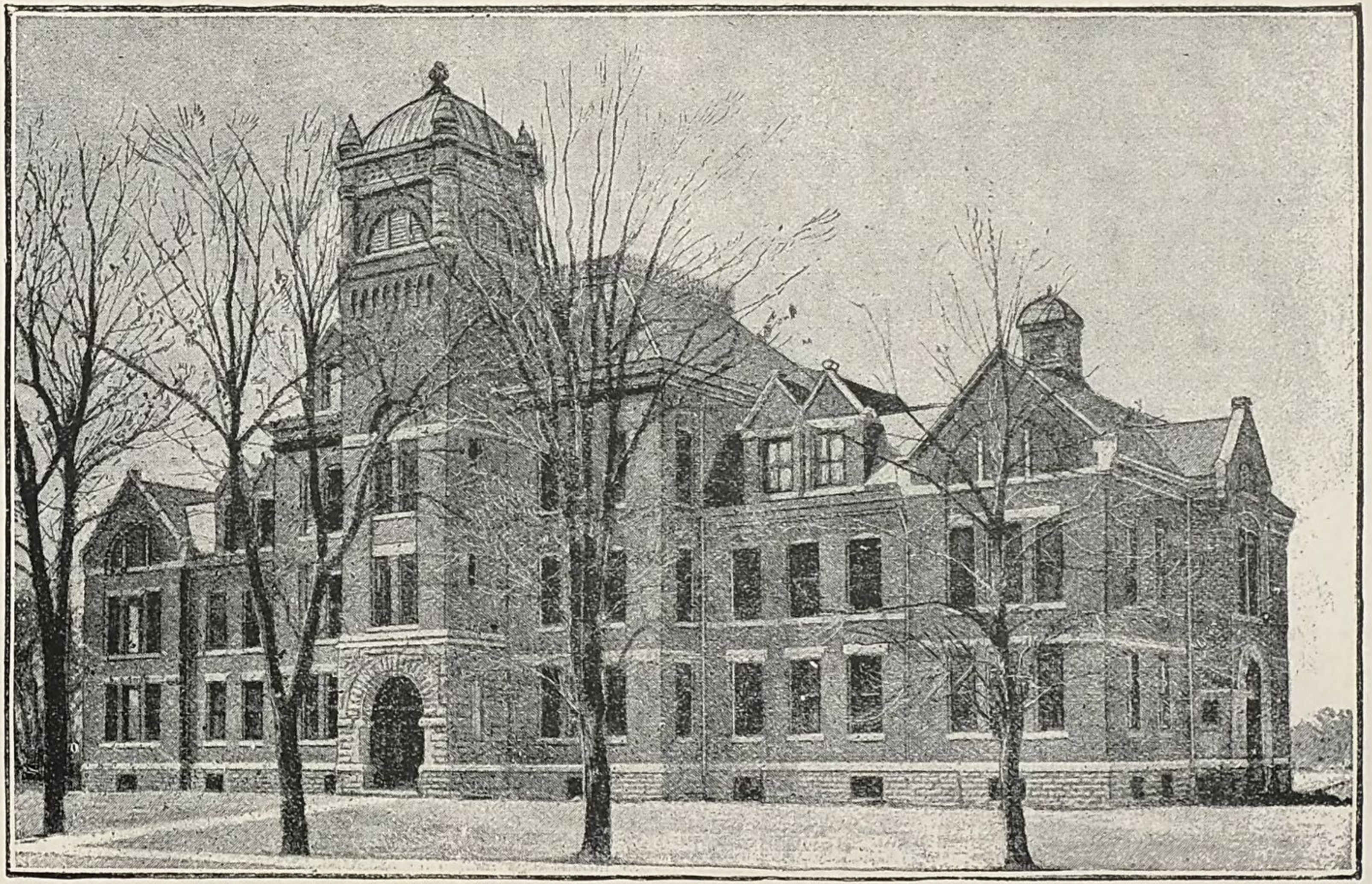
It is furnished with an achromatic telescope having a 6½ inch object glass, 5 eye-pieces affording high and low magnifying powers, and a focal length of 8 feet; a transit instrument, and sidereal clock.

Earlham Hall, the original boarding-school building, is now devoted exclusively to the boarding department. It furnishes good accommodations for 150 students. The dormitory system, as ordinarily understood, has never prevailed at Earlham, but in its stead a well-ordered and attractive home for students of both sexes is maintained under liberal but efficient supervision.

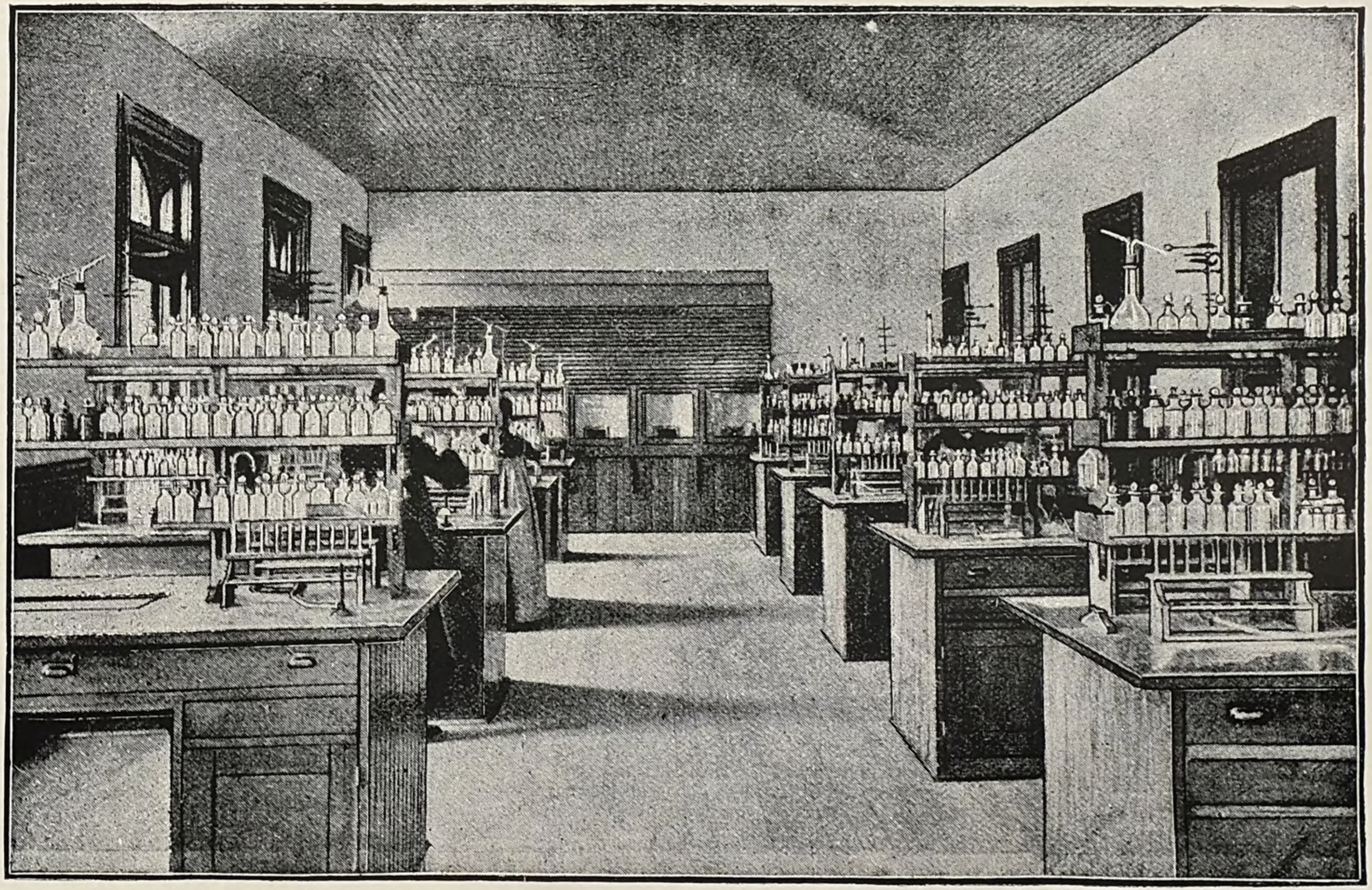
This feature of the college is popular with students, although members of the college classes have the option of boarding within the college or with families in the vicinity.

COURSES OF STUDY.

Six regular collegiate courses of study of four years each are provided, viz:



No. 26.—EARLHAM COLLEGE: LINDLEY HALL.



No. 29.—EARLHAM COLLEGE: LABORATORY OF ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY, PARRY HALL.

(1) The course in ancient classics, having for its distinctive studies the Greek and Latin languages and literatures. It provides for the equivalent of 4 hours a week in Greek for 3½ years and 4 hours per week in Latin for 3 years, 2 years of preparatory Latin being required for admission to the course.

(2) The course in modern classics, in which the German and French languages and literatures are the characteristic studies. The first year of this course corresponds to the first year of the Latin scientific course. The subsequent three years are almost the same as the corresponding years of the course in ancient classics, except that German and French are substituted for Greek and Latin. It offers three full years' work in German and two in French.

(3) The Latin and science course, which has all the Latin of the course in ancient classics and a considerable portion of the natural science, mathematics, and English of the scientific course.

(4) The natural science course, embracing the usual range of studies required in that course by the best colleges in the country. It provides for 2 full years (5 hours per week) in chemistry—one year being elective. In addition to 12 full weeks preparatory work, 11 weeks of 5 hours each are given to physics. Biology is a required study, 10 hours per week through one term, and is offered as an elective, 10 hours per week through an additional year. Geology is required through two terms, 5 hours per week during one term and 4 during the other. Three hours per week through one term is devoted to mineralogy. Students are required to pass satisfactory examinations in human physiology and botany before entering this course. Psychology and related subjects occupy 4 hours per week throughout the Senior year.

(5) The history course, which offers as a specialty nine full terms' work (4 hours per week) in history and the science of government.

(6) The English course, in which provision is made for nine full terms' work (4 hours per week) upon the English language, English literature, and Anglo saxon.

The mathematical studies common to all the courses are geometry, solid and spherical; trigonometry, plane and spherical; and analytical geometry.

In addition to these branches, the Latin scientific and scientific courses include mathematical drawing, descriptive geometry and calculus, and scientific students have one term in surveying.

Analytical mechanics is a required study in the scientific course during one term of the Senior year, and is elective in the Latin scientific course.

Descriptive astronomy is a required study through one term in all courses, except the English course, in which it is elective. Mathematical astronomy is required during one term of the scientific course, and is elective in the Latin scientific course.

CONSPECTUS OF THE COURSES, EARLHAM COLLEGE.

[Figures at the right indicate the number of hours per week. Elective studies are marked thus †.]

FRESHMAN YEAR.

Ancient Classical.	Modern Classical.	Latin and Science.	Natural Science.	History.	English and Literature.
First term:					
Greek, 5	Latin, 4	Latin, 4	Geometry, 5	English History, 4	English Literature, 5.
Latin, 4	English Literature, 5	English Literature, 5	English History, 4	Latin, 4	Greek, 5.
Geometry, 5	Geometry, 5	Geometry, 5	English Literature, 5	Geometry, 5	Geometry, 5.
Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3.
Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Composition, 1.
Second term:					
Greek, 1	Latin, 3	Latin, 3	Chemistry, 4	Med. and Mod. History, 4	Rhetoric, 5.
Latin, 3	Rhetoric, 5	Rhetoric, 5	Algebra, 4	Chemistry, 4	Greek, 4.
Algebra, 4	Algebra, 4	Algebra, 4	Rhetoric, 5	Algebra, 4	Algebra, 4.
Chemistry, 4	Chemistry, 4	Chemistry, 4	Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Composition, 1.
Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1.
Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1			
Third term:					
Greek, 5	Latin, 5	Latin, 5	Chemistry, 4	Civil Government, 4	Greek, 5.
Latin, 5	Trigonometry, 5	Trigonometry, 5	Biology, 10	Latin, 5	Trigonometry, 5.
Trigonometry, 5	Chemistry, 4 †	Chemistry, 4 †	Trigonometry, 5	Trigomonetry, 5	Biology, 10.
Composition, 1	Biology, 10 †	Biology, 10 †	Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Composition, 1.
Scripture, 1	Composition, 1	Composition, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1.
	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1			

SOPHOMORE YEAR.

First term:					
Greek, 3	German, 5	Latin, 2	Physics, 5 (11 weeks)	English Literature, 5	English History, 4.
Latin, 2	English History, 4	Dr. and Des. Geom., 3	Zoölogy, 5 (4 weeks)	German, 5	German, 5.
English History, 4	Physics, 5 (11 weeks)	English History, 4	Chemistry, 5	Physics, 5 (11 weeks)	Physics, 5 (11 weeks).
Physics, 5 (11 weeks)	Zoölogy, 5 (4 weeks)	Physics, 5 (11 weeks)	Dr. and Des. Geom., 3	Zoölogy, 5 (4 weeks)	Zoölogy, 5 (4 weeks).
Zoölogy, 5 (4 weeks)	Elocution, 3	Zoölogy, 5 (4 weeks)	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3.
Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1	Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1.
English Composition, 1		English Composition, 1			
Second term:					
Greek, 3	German, 5	Latin, 4	Geology, 5	English Literature, 5	English Literature, 5.
Latin, 4	English Literature, 5	Dr. and Des. Geom., 2	Mineralogy, 4	German, 5	German, 5.
English Literature, 5	Geology, 5	English Literature, 5	Dr. and Des. Geom., 2	Geology, 5	Chemistry, 4.
Geology, 5	English Composition, 1	Geology, 5	English Literature, 5	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1.
English Composition, 1	Scripture, 1	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1.
Scripture, 1		Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1		
Third term:					
Greek, 5	German, 5	Latin, 2	Geology, 5	History, 4	Logic, 4.
Latin, 4	History, 4	Logic, 4	Surveying, 5	German, 5	German, 5.
History, 4	Geology, 5	History, 4	History, 4	Logic, 4	History, 4.
English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1	Geology, 5	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1.
Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1	English Composition, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1.
		Scripture, 1			

CONSPECTUS OF THE COURSES, EARLHAM COLLEGE—continued.

[Figures at the right indicate the number of hours per week. Elective studies are marked thus †.]

JUNIOR YEAR.

Ancient Classical.	Modern Classical.	Latin and Science.	Natural Science.	History.	English and Literature.
First term:					
Greek, 3	German, 5	Latin, 4	Biology, 10†	History, 4	Anglo-Saxon, 5.
Latin, 4	French, 5	German, 5	History, 4†	German, 5	German, 5.
German, 5	Analytical Geometry, 4	History, 4	Analytical Geometry, 4	Analytical Geometry, 4	Analytical Geometry, 4.
Analytical Geometry, 4	English Composition, 1	Analytical Geometry, 4	German, 5	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1.
English Composition, 1	Scripture, 1	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1	Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1.
		Scripture, 1	Scripture, 1		
Second term:					
Greek, 3	German, 1	Latin, 2	Biology, 10†	History, 5	Anglo-Saxon, 5.
Latin, 2	French, 4	German, 5	Political Economy, 4†	German, 4	German, 4.
German, 5	Political Economy, 4	Analytical Geometry and Calculus, 5.	Analytical Geometry and Calculus, 5.	Analytical Geometry and Calculus, 5.	Geology, 5.
Political Economy, 4	Elocution, 3	Political Economy, 4	German, 5	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3.
Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1.
English Composition, 1		English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1		
Third term:					
Greek, 3	German, 5	Latin, 3	Biology, 10†	History, 4	English Grammar, 5.
Latin, 3	French, 5	German, 5	Logic, 4†	German, 5	German, 5.
German, 5	Logic, 4	Calculus, 5	Calculus, 5	Calculus, 5	History, 4.
Logic, 4	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	German, 5	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3.
Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1	Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1.
English Composition, 1			English Composition, 1		

SENIOR YEAR.

First term:					
French, 5	German, 3	German, 5	Astronomy, 5	French, 5	English Language, 5.
Psychology, 4	French, 2	French, 5†	Chemistry, 10†	Psychology, 4	Psychology, 1.†
Astronomy, 5	Astronomy, 5	Astronomy, 5†	Psychology, 4†	Astronomy, 5	Astronomy, 5.†
English Composition, 1	Psychology, 4	Chemistry, 10†	German, 5	English Composition, 1	French, 5.
Scripture, 1	English Composition, 1	Psychology, 4	English Composition, 1	Scripture, 1	English Composition, 1.
	Scripture, 1	English Composition, 1	Scripture, 1		Scripture, 1.
		Scripture, 1			
Second term:					
Greek, 5	German, 4	German, 4	Chemistry, 10†	Political Economy, 4	English Literature, 5.
French, 4	French, 5	French, 4†	Analytical Mechanics, 4	French, 4	French, 4.
English Literature, 5	English Literature, 5	English Literature, 4†	English Literature, 5†	Analytical Mechanics, 5	Political Economy, 4.
Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	Analytical Mechanics, 5†	German, 4	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3.
English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1	Chemistry, 10†	Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1.
		Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1		
		English Composition, 1			
Third term:					
Greek, 4	German, 4	German, 5	Chemistry, 10†	History, 4	English Literature, 4.
French, 5	French, 4	French, 5†	Astronomy, 5	French, 5	French, 5.
Christian Evidences, 4	Christian Evidences, 4	Astronomy, 5†	Christian Evidences, 4†	Christian Evidences, 4	Christian Evidences, 4.
Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3	Chemistry, 10†	German, 5	Elocution, 3	Elocution, 3.
English Composition, 1	English Compositian, 1	Christian Evidences, 4	Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1	English Composition, 1.
		Elocution, 3	English Composition, 1		
		English Composition, 1			

For admission to the Freshman class of all the foregoing courses of study examinations are required in English grammar and composition, geography, United States history, and general history, human physiology, natural philosophy, botany, arithmetic, algebra, and plane geometry, Latin grammar, Cæsar's commentaries, and Virgil's Æneid.

No president was chosen for the faculty of Earlham College until 1866, when Barnabas C. Hobbs, LL. D., was elected to the place. He continued in the position two years, until 1868, when, having been elected superintendent of public instruction for the State of Indiana, he resigned the presidency of the college and was succeeded by Joseph Moore. President Moore served fifteen years. In 1883 he was obliged by failing health to withdraw from the college. During the year 1883–84 Prof. William P. Pinkham acted as president *pro tem.* In the spring of 1884 Joseph J. Mills, the present incumbent, was elected and entered upon his duties.

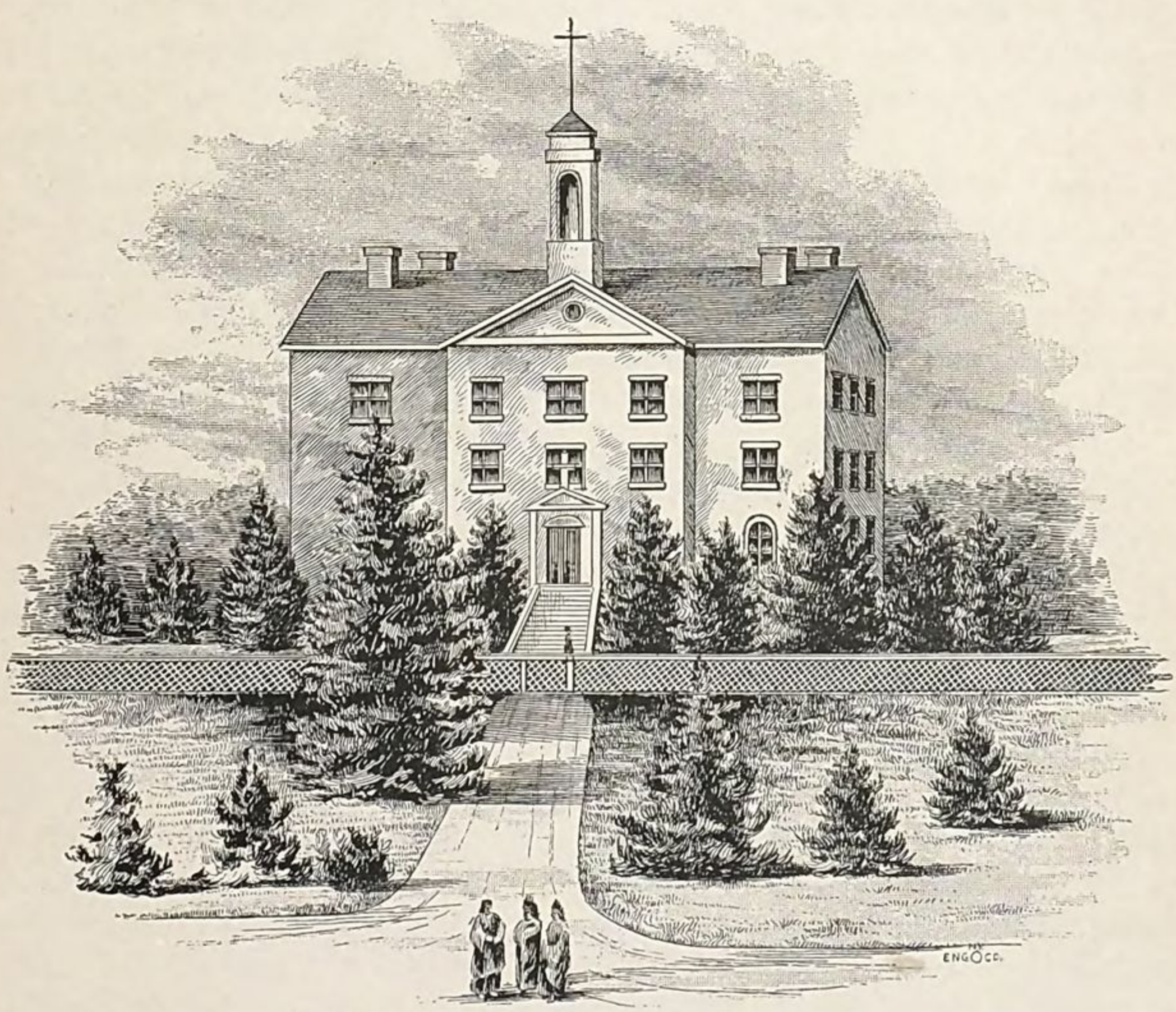
President Mills is a native of Marion County, Indiana. His boyhood was spent upon a farm and his preparatory education was received at a county school near Indianapolis. In 1865 he entered Michigan University, passing examinations upon the work of the Freshman year and taking Sophomore standing.

At the end of five months want of money with which to meet expenses compelled him to relinquish his college work. He at once began teaching as principal of the school in which he had prepared for college—holding that position until the winter of 1868. He then spent five months as a student in Earlham College. In 1869 he was made principal of the high school in Wabash, Ind., and after two years of service in that capacity he was promoted to the superintendency of the Wabash schools, in which position he continued for two years. In 1873 he resigned his place at Wabash to accept the assistant superintendency of the public schools of Indianapolis. In 1878 Earlham College conferred upon him the degree of master of arts. In 1884 he resigned his position in the Indianapolis schools to accept the presidency of Earlham College. Under his administration the college has advanced in thorough scholarship, and in its president the institution has a strong representative among the college men of the State.

NOTRE DAME.

The Roman Catholic priesthood as well as the Protestant ministry were enterprising and energetic in pushing their way into the northwest, and in planting their schools and colleges. In this vast region the Jesuit fathers of the seventeenth century were the first of pioneers. In the promotion of thorough classical learning they have not been behind their Protestant brethren.

In the year 1830 the tract of land now known as Notre Dame was purchased from the Government by the Very Rev. S. T. Badin, the first Catholic priest ever ordained in the United States. Father Badin, whose



No. 30.—NOTRE DAME: FIRST COLLEGE BUILDING. 1844.

missionary field embraced the whole northwestern territory, had become acquainted with the locality in his travels, and admiring its beauty determined to secure it for a future college. With this in view he transferred it to the bishop of Vincennes, who, to accomplish the design of the venerable priest, deeded it, in 1842, to the Congregation of the Holy Cross, a religious society organized in France by the Abbé Moreau, for the instruction of youth.

Prior to the coming of Father Badin the place seems to have been consecrated to religion, being known to the Indian converts and the few Catholic settlers of the surrounding country as St. Mary's of the Lake. It was made the headquarters of two zealous missionaries, the Rev. L. Deseille and Rev. B. Petit, who, after converting many Indians to the faith, at last went to their reward, and their ashes now quietly repose under the church at Notre Dame.

The Congregation of Holy Cross took possession of Notre Dame in 1841; and the Very Rev. E. Sorin, then the superior of the congregation in America, went to work, although his means were very limited, and began clearing the forest preparatory to building the college, in order to fulfill the terms of the contract with the bishop. The name of the place was changed from St. Mary's to Notre Dame du Lac (Our Lady of the Lake), which in the course of time was shortened to Notre Dame.

In the course of the two following years other members arrived from France, and after having erected some small buildings to the south of the lake the little band found itself strong enough to undertake the building of the college, and on the 28th of August the corner-stone was laid with appropriate ceremonies. Before the winter set in the building was under roof, and the next spring it was completed.

In June, 1844, the few students were removed from the farmhouse to the new building, and in August of that year the first Commencement exercises took place. Through the spontaneous kindness of Hon. John D. Defrees, then a member of the legislature, a charter giving the institution university privileges was granted, and Notre Dame was fairly placed on its feet. By degrees the farm was cleared, and the hand of labor grasping the hand of culture, the hum of industry was mingled with the voice of prayer.

The first president of the college was the Very Rev. E. Sorin, with whom in the early days of Notre Dame were associated Rev. F. Cointet, who died in 1854, and the Very Rev. A. Granger, who still resides at Notre Dame. Father Sorin held the office of president from 1844 to 1865, when he became provincial of the order in the United States, and the increased cares of office obliged him to delegate to another the immediate direction of the college.

During the administration of Father Sorin the foundations of Notre Dame were deeply and solidly laid. Save the bare land and the sympathy of the benevolent and charitable, the young community had in the beginning actually no means except the blessing of Heaven, their

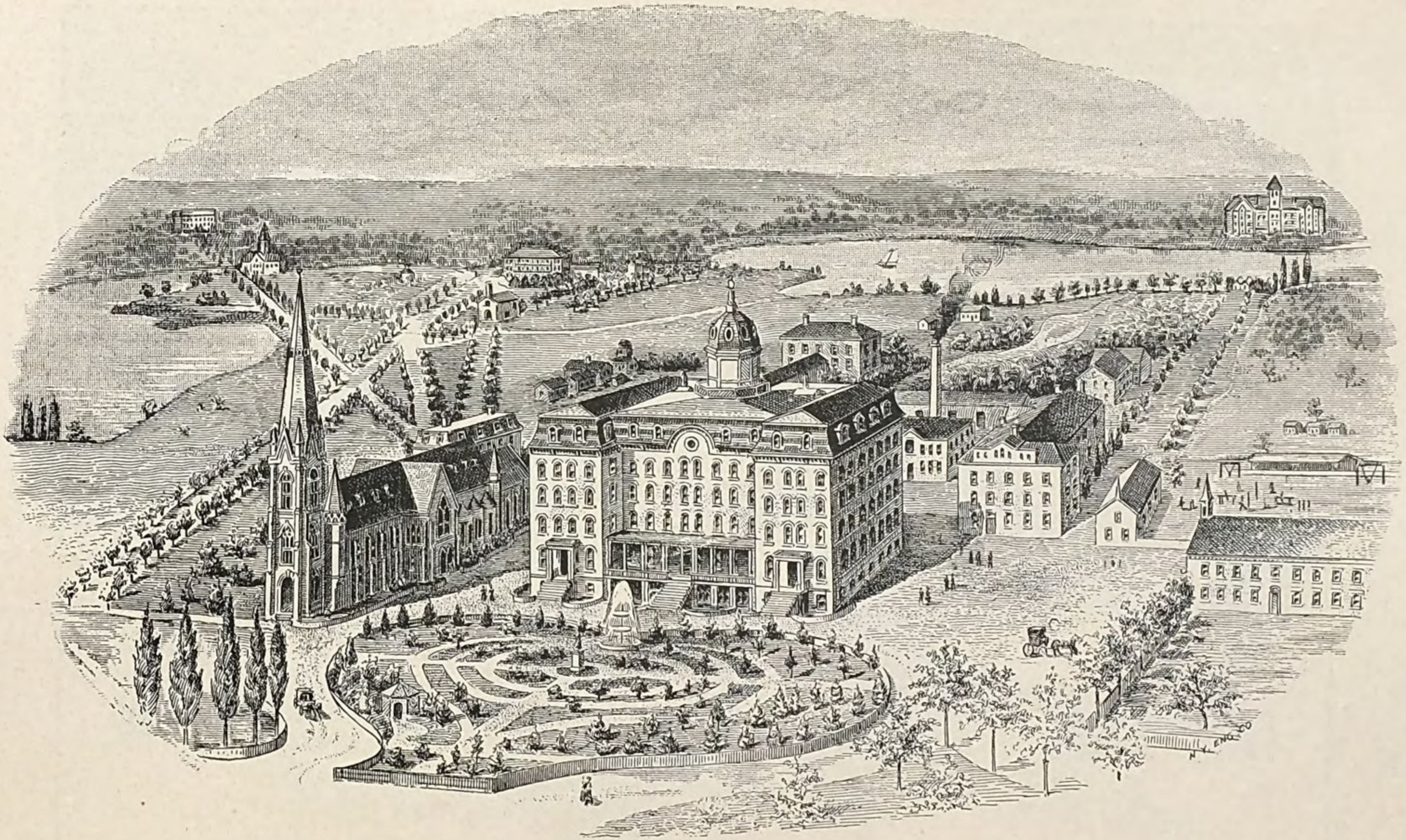
own feeble strength, and, after a time, the tuition of a few students, which for many a year was a very small sum indeed. But faith and zeal did not go unrewarded. Little by little, every year was an improvement on the last. Slowly the number of students crept up from 1 to 100. These, spread over the country, became the best advertisement, and soon there were 200 matriculates, then 300, 400, and 500, until the halls were overflowing.

In 1865, the old college building was in the short space of two months transformed into a more imposing structure, 160 feet in length, 80 feet in width, and six stories high, surmounted by a colossal statue of Notre Dame. On May 31, 1866, this edifice was dedicated, and the statue blessed by Bishop Spalding, assisted by five bishops and a very great number of priests, in the presence of the largest concourse of people ever gathered until then at Notre Dame.

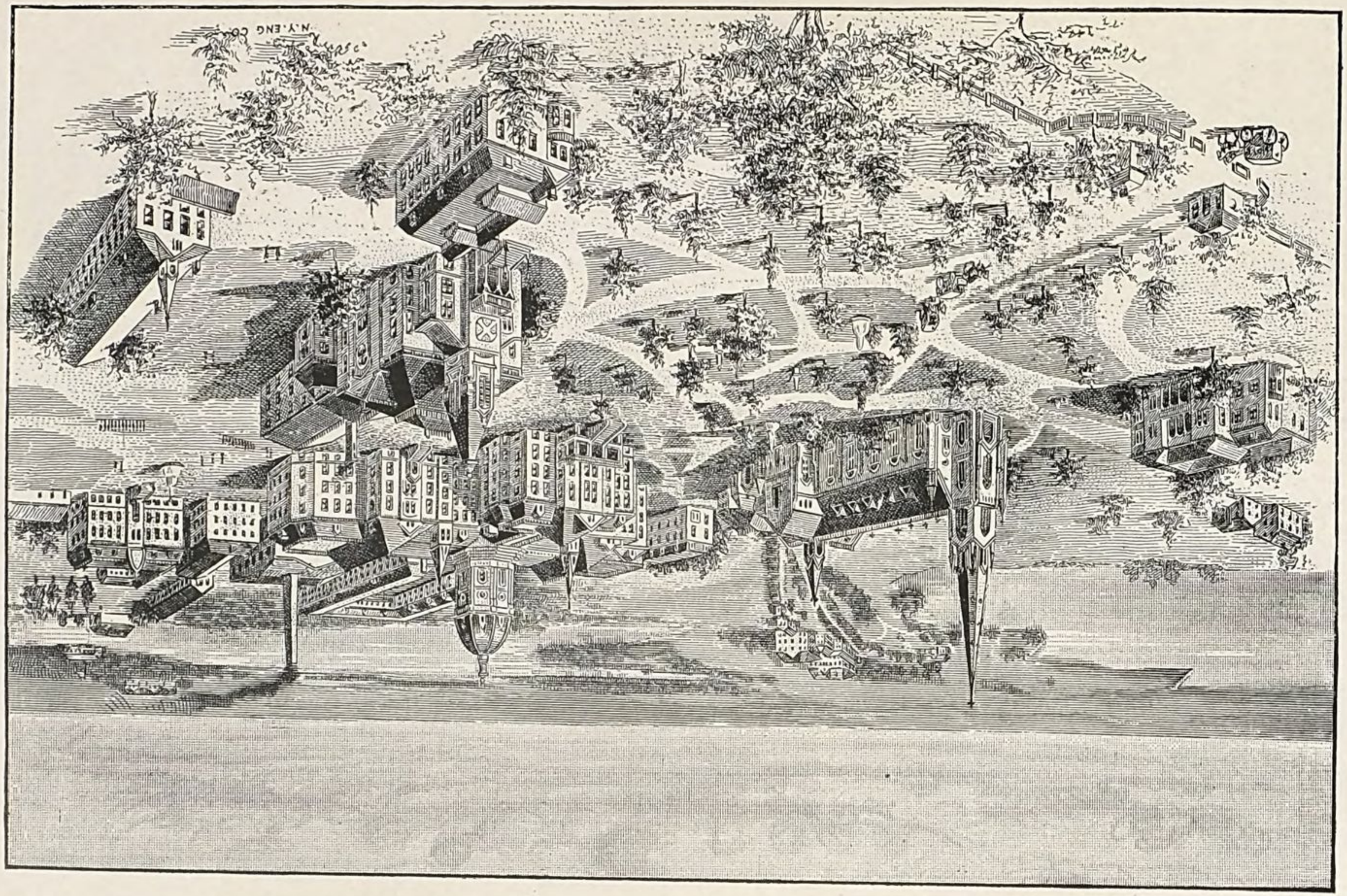
On the 23d of April, 1879, Notre Dame was subjected to one of the severest of trials. Five of the university buildings, including the main one, were entirely destroyed by fire. The contents of the museums, libraries, class rooms, study halls, etc., were burned to ashes, or irretrievably ruined. But the energy and recuperative powers of the institution were equal to the emergency. While the fire still lingered among the smouldering ruins, the work of preparing for the new building was begun; and when the students returned in September following, they found on the site of the old building a large and magnificent edifice. Since then the progress of Notre Dame has rendered necessary the construction of a wing on either side and several large buildings in the vicinity. This seat of learning is now, and has been for some years, under the presidency of the Rev. Thomas E. Walsh, who is known as a man of unusual ability and a priest of thorough training, singularly amiable, and full of zeal in his sacred calling, whose rare administrative ability and enterprising spirit have exercised a marked influence upon the progress and prosperity of the university.

The present condition of the institution is that of a prosperous, well-manned, classical college, where the students are thoroughly drilled. It is not necessary to speak of the perfection attained in the Latin language in an institution conducted by Fathers of the Catholic church, among whom that classic tongue has never been allowed to die. The poetry in hexameter and the difficult Horation measures, which from time to time appear in the periodicals of the college, bear witness that Notre Dame forms no exception to the rule in Catholic institutions.

Nor is science neglected. The flora and fauna of the fertile St. Joseph Valley give increasing occupation to the naturalist, the fruits of whose labors are preserved in the herbarium and museum. The geology of the Great Lake Basin, and the multifarious mineral specimens to be found in the neighborhood, open other interesting fields of science, which have been duly tilled, and the philosophical apparatus appears to have gathered no rust or dust from neglect. The courses of law and



No. 31.—NOTRE DAME BEFORE THE FIRE. 1879.



No. 32.—BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE NEW NOTRE DAME.

civil engineering are in active operation, and there is a preparatory course of medicine which has long been conducted under the care of an eminent and experienced practitioner. A commercial school here has always borne a good reputation among business men, so that its graduates find no difficulty in obtaining employment, which is probably the best test of worth.

The Catholic religion is professed by the teachers and officers of the establishment, but non-Catholics have always availed themselves, in large numbers, of the educational advantages here offered.

SCIENCE HALL AND THE SCHOOL OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING.

Science Hall at Notre Dame is a large structure, in the Romanesque style of architecture, 131 feet long by 104 feet broad, and contains upwards of 30 large rooms. The school of mechanical engineering occupies the basement and consists of a central room, or hall 50x46, flanked on either side by a number of laboratories and workshops, 12 in number, all for the mechanic arts. Next to this is the spacious metallurgical laboratory of the school of mines.

Connecting with the school of mechanical engineering is a large, airy, well-lighted room devoted to electrical engineering. Among a number of other things here we noticed a 100-light Edison dynamo presented to the Notre Dame Science Hall by the Edison Electric Light Company. This furnishes light for the Academy of Music, close by, and for the various laboratories, lecture-rooms and cabinets of science hall. It is also used for experimental work when very strong currents are required. Besides the Edison, there is a Vandepoel dynamo of smaller size, and one of the Maxim type, which supply electric currents for ordinary work in the physical and chemical laboratories and lecture rooms. The power for running these dynamos is generated by an Armington & Sims high-speed automatic engine, donated to Science Hall by the Armington & Sims Engine Company, of Providence, R. I.

Connected with Notre Dame there are also a gymnasium, well-equipped for the physical training of its students, and a musical college for the education of those who seek its benefits in the cultivation of this important art. The literary societies offer the usual advantages of such institutions, and their halls and libraries are equipped for useful work.

The college course at Notre Dame is equal to that of the most favored classical college, and the college bears throughout the Northwest an enviable reputation for the thorough training which the students receive within its walls. As a Christian institution, built and maintained upon Catholic principles, it is fostered and maintained for the promotion of sound learning and for the glory of the church, and it offers to the young people of all denominations a valuable mental, moral, mechanical and manual training. It has exerted a strong influence in its generation and within its sphere.

Fort Wayne College.

At the third session of the North Indiana Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, held at Lafayette, Ind., in September, 1846, the Fort Wayne Female College was organized. The first session of the board of trustees was held informally on the 28th of September, 1846. They were regularly organized, however, under a charter June 19, 1847, and the corner stone of the college building laid on the 24th of the same month, Rev. Samuel Brenton delivering an address on the occasion.

Hon. A. C. Huestis was the first president, serving from September, 1847, to May, 1848, when he was succeeded by G. H. Rounds, who held the position until July 30, 1849. Upon his resignation the vacancy was filled by the appointment of Rev. Cyrus Nutt, who held the position until he resigned on September 3, 1850. Hon. A. C. Huestis was acting president until April 19, 1852. Rev. S. T. Gillett was president until September of the same year, when he was succeeded by Rev. Samuel Brenton, who held the position until August 4, 1855. Rev. Reuben D. Robinson was president from the last date mentioned until December 18, 1866, and then again for the five years succeeding March 20, 1872.

Dr. Robinson was succeeded by Rev. W. F. Yocum, D. D., who served the college as president for eleven years, tendering his resignation June 14, 1888. The trustees at this meeting elected Rev. H. N. Herrick as president, who is still (August, 1889) serving in that capacity.

In the mean time the progress of the school was not the most satisfactory, but steps were taken, as occasion seemed to demand, to remedy existing deficiencies. On the 1st of March, 1849, the president laid before the board of trustees a communication from Rev. Samuel Brenton on the subject of a male department in connection with the college, which was referred to a special committee consisting of Messrs. Edsall and Williams. At a subsequent meeting of the board on the 28th of July, 1849, a resolution looking to the consummation of the above plan was laid on the table. In March, 1850, the faculty in a written request to the board asked the privilege of admitting male students at the commencement of the next term. This request was granted, and at a meeting of the board on the 17th of August, 1852, "it was resolved that, in the opinion of the board it is expedient to establish a college for the education of males at this place, to sustain the same relation to the North Indiana Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church that the Fort Wayne Female College does, and that we will co-operate with the North Indiana Conference and the friends of education in carrying into effect such a project."

On the 10th of October, 1855, the "Fort Wayne Female College" and the "Fort Wayne Collegiate Institute for Young Men" were consolidated, forming a new institution known as "Fort Wayne College."

The college has had a continued struggle for existence from its beginning until within the past few years. Rev. R. D. Robinson, D. D.,

who presided over the institution for seventeen years, and Rev. W. F. Yocum, D. D., who sustained the same relation to it for eleven years, are entitled to great credit for their faithful, conscientious, and persistent efforts in the interest of the school. They were, however, ably assisted by such men as William Rockhill, Allen Hamilton, Joseph K. Edgerton, John M. Miller, George Breckenridge, and many others.

At a meeting of the National Association of Local Preachers of the Methodist Episcopal Church, held in the city of Fort Wayne, Ind., September 11 to 14, 1886, the following action was taken:

FORT WAYNE, IND., *September* 14, 1886.

To the National Association of Local Preachers of the Methodist Episcopal Church:

DEAR BRETHREN: Your committee on education would respectfully recommend the following plan for the educational work of the association:

First. That the efforts of the association shall be confined and directed to only one institution of learning at a time.

Second. That such benefactions shall be continued until such institution be placed on a firm financial basis, and be thereby made permanently an honor to the association thus fostering it.

Third. That the institution selected shall be required, before receiving any aid from the association, to adopt in a legal manner, in consideration of such aid, resolutions, or other suitable binding action, providing: That special rates and facilities shall be granted to all students who are local preachers of the Methodist Episcopal Church, or the children of such, and also to all students who may be preparing themselves for missionary work.

Fourth. That all funds of the association not otherwise specifically appropriated or designated by the donors thereof shall belong to the educational fund, and be used for the purpose of aiding such institution, under the direction of the educational committee.

Fifth. That the educational committee be authorized and directed to prepare and adopt plans for collections in aid of the educational fund.

And your committee further report that they have received a communication from the board of trustees of the Fort Wayne College, which they append hereto.

Your committee have inquired into the status of the college and find that the trustees of the Fort Wayne College are a legally organized body under the laws of the State of Indiana, and under a special charter granting unusual privileges.

They also learn that the local preachers of the North Indiana Conference, acting upon the recommendation of your association offered at its last annual session, have organized and agreed to raise $3,000 for the college, as their part of your aid thereto. Of this sum $795.65 has already been secured.

And your committee, in view of these facts, and the statements in said communication from the board of trustees, also in view of the action your body heretofore had, and that said college is the first applicant, therefore and in consideration of its central location, its healthy Christian work and influences, and the promising field of its operations, we recommend that the Fort Wayne College be selected by the association to be the recipient of its benefactions, and be declared to be under its patronage.

GEO. W. MOONEY,
W. B. CHADWICK,
LEWIS H. COLE,
CHAUNCEY SHAFFER,
Com. Advisory.

The following is the letter of the trustees to the association referred to above:

Messrs. G. W. Mooney, W. B. Chadwick, and C. H. Harding, educational committee, and Messrs. Chauncey Shaffer and L. H. Cole, advisory committee thereto, of the National Association of Local Preachers, M. E. Church.

DEAR BRETHREN: In view of the favorable action taken by your association in behalf of the Fort Wayne College, at its session in Brooklyn in 1885, we feel emboldened to present our institution again to your consideration.

We have adopted resolutions providing for special rates and facilities for students who are local preachers of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and also for the children of local preachers, and for students who are preparing themselves for missionary work.

We desire your endorsement as an association. In the event of your aid to the extent of the endowment of a chair in our college, we suggest that it be named in a manner to become a permanent record of your munificence and practical aid to the cause of education. Should your association be enabled, in the providence of God, to do more than this, we would meet it in a corresponding spirit, and give you an equitable representation upon the board of trustees. You would then be joint owners with us of our college, for the legal title is The Trustees of the Fort Wayne College.

Very respectfully,

H. C. HARTMAN,
Vice President.

D. C. WOOLPORT,
Secretary.

Favorable action was taken by this association at subsequent meetings and at the annual meeting of the trustees and visitors held June 19 and 20, 1889, propositions were made by the representatives of this association that they would furnish the college certain needed financial

aid provided the name of the institution was changed to William Taylor College or University as might be hereafter determined upon. The proposition was accepted, the proper committees appointed looking to the proposed change, and at the present time, August, 1889, the preliminary steps have been taken and the change is apparently an assured fact.

The institution has numbered among its faculty some excellent teachers, and the grade of its college work has been on a par with that of the usual preparatory training schools.

The following represents the faculty and the departments of Fort Wayne College:

FACULTY.

C. B. Stemen, A. M., M. D., LL. D., *Dean*, 25 Broadway, *Professor of Surgery and Clinical Surgery.*
William P. Whery, M. D., M. R., C. P., *Secretary*, 26 Madison street, *Professor of Diseases of Women and Obstetrics.*
George W. McCaskey, A. M., M. D., *Professor of Theory and Practice of Medicine and Clinical Diseases of the Chest and Nervous System.*
Joseph L. Gilbert, M. D., *Professor of Theory and Practice of Medicine.*
Charles R. Dryer, A. B., M. D., *Professor of Chemistry and Toxicology.*
I. Ellis Lyons, A. M., M. D., *Professor of Obstetrics.*
Kent K. Wheelock, M. D., *Professor of Ophthalmology and Otology.*
George B. Stemen, M. D., *Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics.*
Walter W. Barnett, M. D., *Professor of Anatomy.*
Alpheus P. Buchman, M. D., *Professor of Diseases of Children.*
Neal Hardy, M. D., *Professor of Physiology.*
H. D. Wood, A. M., M. D., *Professor of Abdominal Surgery.*
Vesta M. W. Swarts, M. D., *Lecturer on Dermatology.*
R. W. Thrift, M. D., *Emeritus Professor of Gynecology.*
James S. Gregg, M. D., *Emeritus Professor of Surgery.*

Moore's Hill College.

Moore's Hill College is situated at Moore's Hill, in Dearborn County, southeastern Indiana. It was founded in 1854. In December, 1853, a meeting of citizens in that vicinity was held to consider the question of establishing a seminary or college at that place. Among those present and taking a prominent part in the initial steps of the enterprise were Rev. T. G. Beharell, D. D., John C. Moore, Dr. H. G. Bowers, Joseph McCreary, and others. At this meeting a committee was appointed to solicit contributions, and instructed to report at a subsequent meeting. At a meeting held shortly after this, in December, 1853, the amounts contributed were reported and were considered sufficient to justify the further prosecution of the enterprise. The necessary steps toward incorporation were taken, and in the following January, 1854, the institution was duly incorporated.

The college was organized and for a time controlled on the joint stock plan. In 1855 the trustees tendered to the Southeastern Indiana Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church the fee simple of the property of the said institution. The conference accepted the generous offer, and appointed commissioners "to receive, hold, and vote the stock of said institution on behalf of the conference."

The college is supported by income from endowment, by tuition, and by public contributions. The grounds, buildings, furniture, and apparatus are valued at $28,200. The endowment is $20,000. The number of volumes in the library is 1,000.

The government of the college is vested in a board of trustees and the faculty. The course of study in the collegiate department extends through four years, and embraces the ordinary branches of advanced academic learning, and much of what is taught in representative American colleges.

In addition to the regular courses of study there have been established a normal department, a department of music, and a preparatory department. There are seven instructors and an annual enrollment of 130 students.

The following is a list of the presidents and the time during which each served: Rev. Samuel R. Adams, 1856–'62; Rev. William O. Pierce, 1862–'64; Rev. Thomas Harrison, 1864–'70; Rev. J. H. Martin, 1870–'72; Rev. F. A. Hester, 1872–'76; Rev. John P. D. John, 1876–'79, and 1880–'82; Rev. J. H. Doddridge, 1879–'80; Dr. L. G. Adkinson, 1882–'87; Rev. G. P. Jenkins, 1887 to present time. Moore's Hill College, like many other institutions, has passed through many stormy seasons. During the past ten years the interest in this college has been gradually increasing. The college building is a large three-story brick structure, located in the center of a beautiful campus of seven acres, and presenting a good appearance.

The following list shows the members of the faculty of Moore's Hill College in 1890:

G. P. Jenkins, A. M., D. D., *President, and Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy and English Literature.*

Monroe Vayhinger, A. M., *Vice President, and Professor of Mathematics and German.*

Edward B. T. Spencer, A. B., *Professor of Latin and Greek.*

Andrew J. Bigney, A. B., *Professor of Natural Sciences.*

Charles W. Lewis, B. S., *Instructor in Normal Department.*

Miss Lillian Carter, *Tutor in Latin.*

Miss Estella Leonard, *Principal of Music Department.*

Miss Estella Leonard, *Secretary.*

E. B. T. Spencer, *Librarian.*

HARTSVILLE COLLEGE.

On the 12th of January, 1850, this institution was chartered under the name of "The Hartsville Academy." It was founded by the Indiana Conference of the United Brethren in Christ, with the aid of citizens in Bartholomew County. It was placed in charge of a board of trustees, with power to fill all vacancies occurring in the board, also "to appoint a president, professors, and other instructors who should constitute the faculty of Hartsville Academy," who "by and with the consent of the trustees should have power to grant all such degrees in the sciences and arts as are customary in other such colleges, universities, or academies of the United States." On the first Monday of May, 1850, the school was opened, with Prof. James McD. Miller, A. M., a graduate of the Indiana State University, class 1849, in charge. Soon other conferences of the church coöperated in maintaining the school.

By act of the legislature February 8, 1851, the name was changed from the "Hartsville Academy" to the "Hartsville University," with power "to establish the various schools of a university." But failing to secure the coöperation of conferences which had been expected, the institution was continued as an academy until about the year 1865, when it began to employ professors as in the different departments of a college. March 5, 1882, the charter was again changed. The number of trustees was reduced from 27 to 16, four from each of the coöperating conferences, who were to be elected by the conference and to continue in office four years, and the institution was made in name what it was in reality—a college.

Professor Miller was succeeded in 1852 by the Rev. David Shuck, A. M., also a graduate of the State University, class of 1846. Rev. Shuck continued in the presidency for thirteen years. Within this period a scholarship endowment plan was instituted, and scholarships amounting to near $200,000 were sold; also the present building, a brick structure, 60 by 80 feet and three stories high, was erected in the center of a beautiful campus of seventeen acres, immediately south of the town. In 1865 Professor Shuck was succeeded by Prof. J. Woodbury Scribner, A. M., of Dartmouth College. Under his administration the institution took on the form and undertook the work of a college. System was introduced and the school took rank with other colleges in the State. A hall was also erected for the accommodation of lady students, which was consumed by fire a few years ago. In 1873 Professor Shuck was again called to the presidency of the institution for one year, when he was followed by the Rev. W. J. Pruner, M. S., of the class of 1866, also a graduate of Union Biblical Seminary, Dayton, Ohio. For five years, with Professors J. J. Riley, S. Wertz, L. Mobley, J. L. Funkhouser and Mr. Fix as his associates in the various departments, he carried forward the work, when Rev. C. H. Kiracofe, A. M., an alumnus of Otterbein University, Ohio, was called to the head of the institution.

Within his administration the library has been largely increased, the courses of study have been improved, and the institution brought into more complete harmony with the genius and polity of the U. B. Church. Equality in privilege is not denied to women.

The courses of study are such as are offered in the higher academies. It has been and will continue to be the place where many a poor boy or girl may secure an education, who for want of means could not secure it elsewhere. To all such, as well as the more wealthy, the doors of Hartsville College are ever wide open.

There are other colleges and academies in the State of local reputation which are doing valuable educational service in their several communities. They are manned, usually, by careful, painstaking instructors, and their students receive an efficient preparatory training either for the advanced courses of the university or for professional careers in life. These minor schools are doing much to educate the citizenship of Indiana.

Merom, Ridgeville, De Pauw Female College at New Albany, Coates College near Terre Haute—these institutions, and others, private high schools and academies, are exerting a good influence throughout Indiana. It is but fair to say that some of these are of equal rank with institutions to which this sketch has given a more extended notice. But for their provision many young men and women would be denied the literary training and classical attainments which now are within their reach.

CHAPTER XII.

THE INDEPENDENT NORMAL SCHOOLS.

A sketch of Indiana education, however meagre, would be unsatisfactory without some notice of the independent normal school.

Although the direct purpose of this sketch is to trace the growth and to set forth the condition of the collegiate life of Indiana, while the normal has to do more directly with the common schools, yet the recent growth in the independent normal schools of the State, especially in their collegiate departments, and the influence which these institutions have exerted upon the educational life of the State, call for recognition.

Under the old constitution and in the early years of the new, the "normal school" existed for temporary periods and at various places. They were, professedly, schools for the training of teachers. In most instances they were makeshifts and impositions. One of the leading educators of the State referred to them as "so-called schools which are abnormal."

The schools of the country districts and villages were then not numerous or lucrative enough to create a body of professional teachers in such numbers as would make the support of first-class normal schools possible. The graduates of the colleges who had devoted themselves to teaching were in the seminaries or academies. As the free-school system grew in favor the increase of teachers—or of those offering themselves as such—was rapid and constant. The demand arose in the State Association of Teachers and in smaller educational assemblies, for a normal school designed for the special preparation of teachers. The State answered the demand in 1865 by the establishment of the State Normal School at Terre Haute. Ten or fifteen years later, there was a demand still unsatisfied. The number of applicants for positions in the schools had largely increased. Many of these were grossly incompetent; some were rejected, some were accepted for lack of men and women who were better prepared and who were willing to accept the meagre emoluments offered in the common school for those who had spent many years in preparation. There has always been an ignorant class of people in Western communities who imagine any able-bodied person, however narrow his intelligence, competent to "hold school." Among such a class the requirement of a test of intelligence and capacity seemed an imposition upon equal privileges. It has not been two decades since men applied for positions at the teacher's

desk in Indiana who thought the "metropolis of Illinois was corn, wheat, and rye," and that Shakespeare and Virgil were American poets. It has been the business of the schools and the laws to make it morally impossible for such ignoramuses to present themselves in a body of teachers. To that end the schools must be supplied with efficient material. Teachers had to be provided for and taught.

There arose a general demand in the State for a school with good teachers which could offer to mature minds in a brief period of time carefull drill and instruction in the elements of arithmetic, geography, grammar and the other common-school branches of study.

Many young men and women, of good sense and intellect and with pedagogical ability, aspired to teach in the common schools, who had not time, nor money—perhaps not the disposition—to undergo in preparation, what seemed to them, the long course of the curriculum in college or in the classical normal school. They had only a few years, in many instances only a few months, to spend in school, and in that time they wished to study, not what some fixed and prescribed course dictated for them on examination, but those things only which they wished to teach and in which they felt themselves deficient. They would have a school where they might come for any period of time and at any time of the year, study what subjects they pleased and begin where they chose. They were seeking training as teachers, and instruction in the common-school branches.

The establishment by private enterprise of good schools in answer to this demand has been an instrument in materially raising the educational standard among the common-school teachers of the State. No one can despise the work which they have done and are still doing, and their representative graduates, filling positions of honor and responsibility, speak well for the intellectual and pedagogical training which these schools have to offer.

THE VALPARAISO NORMAL SCHOOL.

During the spring of 1873 the idea of establishing a school which would, it was thought, accommodate a large number of students whose wants had not already been met, was put in operation. The design was to build up such an institution as would enable all to secure a thorough, practical education at the very least expense possible, and thus meet the wants of those who were depending largely on their own resources for their education and who would not be able to attend school in consecutive terms. Owing to the fact of its close proximity to Chicago, the metropolis of the West, the peculiar railroad facilities, and especially the healthfulness of the climate, Valparaiso was selected as the location of the school. The extensive college buildings once occupied by the Methodists were purchased and work was at once commenced for such improvements as then seemed necessary.

The founder of the institution, well knowing that his plans could not

be carried out without great care, undertook the personal supervision of not only the school proper, but of all the business details of the boarding department, furnishing, etc. Ample arrangements were made and the school opened September 16, 1873, with an enrollment of 35 students and four regular instructors. Expecting to make this a permanent institution, the foundation was well laid; from the beginning none but experienced teachers were employed. Not having any endowment, it was necessary to provide even more than the regular institutions, so that everything that would in any way advance the interests of the students was provided; in fact, no expense was spared in making such provision. During the first year about 250 different students were enrolled, and at the opening of the second year it increased so rapidly that new buildings were a necessity. These were erected, and since, from time to time, school buildings have been erected, the value of which exceeds $200,000. Not only have buildings been erected, but apparatus of all kinds has been supplied, and one of the most complete libraries known at any school has been provided. As a result of this careful, conscientious effort the attendance has rapidly increased, until now the number of students enrolled each year exceeds 4,000, with an average term enrollment of 1,750; thus making this the largest normal school in the United States. It is thoroughly equipped in all of its appointments. Department after department has been added until now the following are fully established, and the character of the work in each is as indicated:

Preparatory.—This department is designed to receive students of any age and any stage of advancement.

Teachers' department.—This is arranged to meet the wants of those who are making preparation for work in the schoolroom. Such arrangements are made as will enable those who have a short respite from their schools to spend their time and means to the best possible advantage. Beginning, advanced, and review classes are formed in all of the branches, not at the beginning only, but at different periods during the term. This accommodates teachers whose schools close before the opening of a regular term. The teachers' training class is made a special feature of this work, and besides the idea of teaching, plans are given for the organizations of a school, making reports, etc.

The collegiate department embraces the scientific course and the classic course. The work in this department has been established to bring within the reach of every one that broader culture which has always been indispensable to the highest success in professional work, and is becoming equally indispensable to the honorable discharge of the common duties of citizenship. The fundamental principles that shape the practical work of all the classes are these: Culture, dissociated from some definite end in everyday work, is intellectual and moral dissipation. All that any school can safely give its pupils is, a practical acquaintance with the instruments of culture, an opportunity to convince

themselves by actual use of the instruments that nothing can prevent their pursuing the culture unaided to the utmost limit fixed by natural ability and the duties of life, and that no pleasure is so perfect as that which comes from the unaided employment of these instruments. Accordingly these principles are rigidly applied in the work connected with the languages. The authors read are studied as literature, illustrations of natural habits of thought, and the social and political institutions of the times. In both the scientific and the classic course a systematic course of reading in standard English authors is maintained, and it is confidently believed that nothing the student can do will prove of more real value to him. Very few leave without a genuine taste for good reading, a knowledge of how to read, and a good outline of what to read. Both classes receive regular training in the higher departments of rhetoric, outlining themes in explanation and argumentation, the themes being taken from the class work of the term of the current discussions of the times.

In logic and psychology a clear and comprehensive outline of the whole subject is obtained, and each pupil familiarizes himself with some of the more recondite problems by special investigations and reports which are discussed by the class. The great systems of thought now dividing the philosophic world receive special attention. The practical applications to self-culture and the philosophy of education are worked out with the utmost care. The class in political economy first master the great leading features of production, consumption, and distribution, value, exchange, labor, capital, currency, and then apply the principles thus obtained in the discussion of the particular phases of economic questions occupying the public mind at the time.

In higher mathematics every effort is made to have the work thorough and comprehensi ve. Practical trigonometry is fully illustrated by its application to land surveying—problems being solved from data taken in the field by the students. Botany and geology are studied, as far as is practicable, objectively. The former is begun with analysis of flowers, and technicalities are learned as needed. The principles of dynamical geology are worked out with care, and no pupil is supposed to understand a principle until he is able to recognize it in operations going on in every neighborhood. The work in natural philosophy, physiology, chemistry, etc., is conducted on the same plan. The whole course in the sciences keeps constantly in view the needs of the pupil after he has left school, and everything is done to facilitate and encourage independent study.

The civil engineering department gives the student a proficient preparation for work as a civil engineer.

The law department admits the student to practice in the courts of this State and requires 2 years of 30 weeks each for its completion.

The musical department is, in fact, a conservatory of music. The building is arranged for this especial purpose and the best of instruments are in use.

The work in *elocution* and *oratory* is such as prepares the young people for public readers, or speakers, or teachers. The instruction is based upon the principle that "Expression is the outward manifestation of that which is already in the consciousness." Hence the student is not taught to imitate, but assisted in forming proper habits of reading and speaking, on the principle that we can do without conscious effort what we are in the habit of doing. The methods of the late Boston University School of Oratory are closely followed in voice culture and the general presentation of the subject. Gesture is taught mainly by the Delsarte system.

In addition to these there is a fine art department, a department of phonography and typewriting, and a commercial department, each of which, instead of being a department, is in reality a school by itself, and is in charge of a special teacher, one who gives his whole time to the work of that particular department.

The influence of the school is being felt not only in this State but in other States as well. The best evidence that the institution is meeting the design of the founder is its continued growth, and the demand for those trained in it. Already, though the school is comparatively young, many of its graduates are holding positions in the best public schools and colleges, and not a few have become noted in State and National politics. One-fifth of the present county superintendents of the State are from this school, while nearly the same ratio exists in other States. It is now upon a sound financial basis and has sufficient means to meet every expense regardless of the attendance, so that in this respect it is on an equal footing with the endowed institutions.

The Valparaiso Normal School is the largest of its kind, public or private, now existing in America; and its rapid growth and present great success are a monument to the energy, enterprise, devotion, ability, and pedagogical skill of a single man—Prof. H. B. Brown, its founder and only president. President Brown has impressed his influence widely upon the common-school teachers of this and neighboring States. The school which he has founded covers a wide field in its usefulness and has added very appreciably to the educational forces of Indiana.

CENTRAL NORMAL COLLEGE AND COMMERCIAL INSTITUTE, DANVILLE, HENDRICKS COUNTY, IND.

This institution was organized by J. W. Darst and W. F. Harper at Ladoga, Montgomery County, Ind., in 1876. The first term opened in September of that year, 48 students being in attendance. The work was prosecuted with vigor. The attendance rapidly increased. The second year opened with bright prospects. The building was soon found to be too small. An effort was made to secure money enough to construct a larger one, but in vain. The promises made in the advertisements of the school could not be fulfilled. President Harper decided to remove to a town where ample accommodations could be had. On May 10, 1878, the teachers, accompanied by 175 students, went to

Danville, Ind., where a large building had been secured. The people threw open their homes and the wants of all were met.

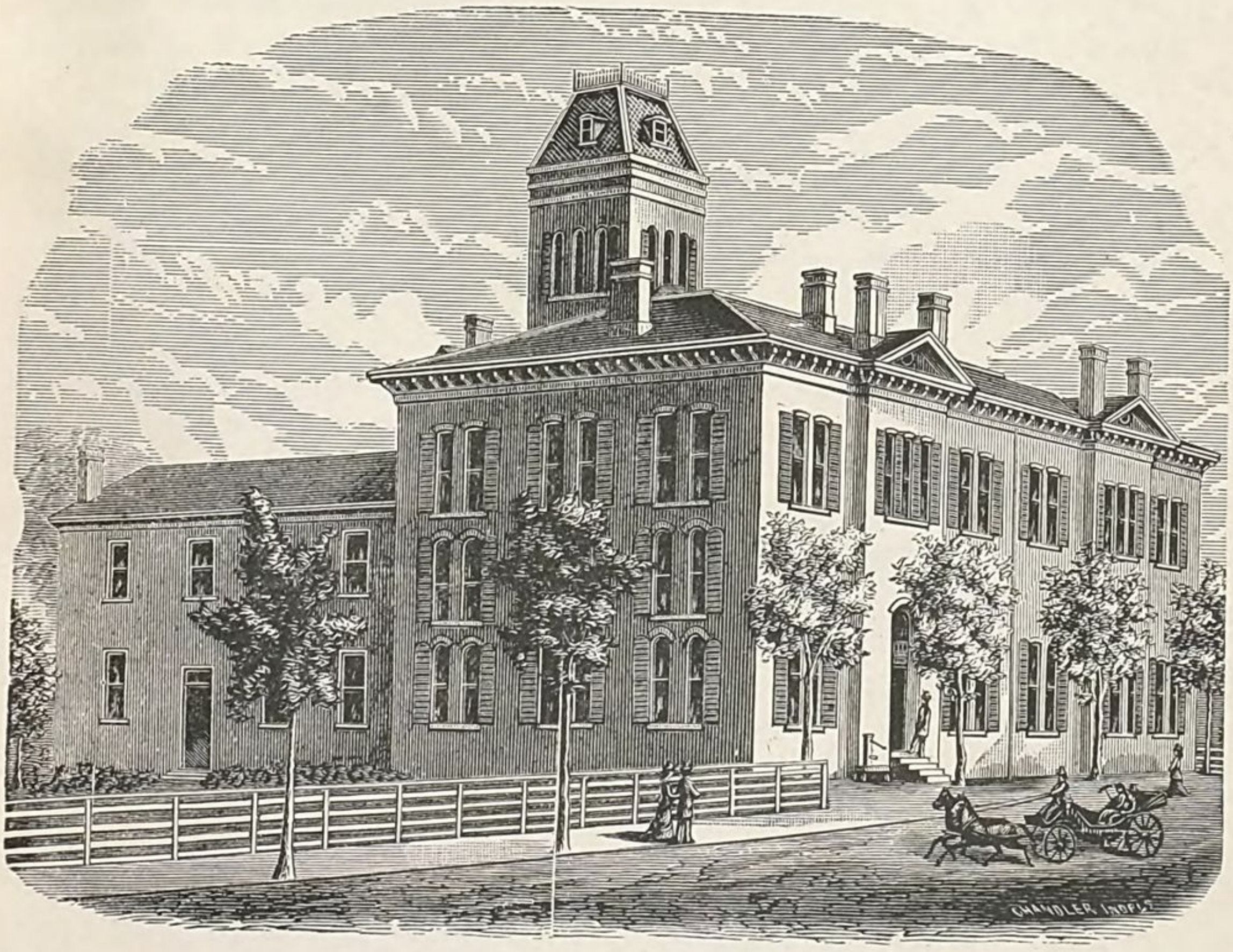
This year, 1878, Prof. Frank P. Adams, the most popular instructor of the college, succeeded to the presidency. He threw his whole soul into the work. Being endowed with a strong mind, remarkable energy, and great personal magnetism, he infused new life into the institution. Being wholly without financial aid of State or church, he labored under great difficulties. He, however, called to his assistance such prominent educators as Miss A. Kate Huron, Miss C. Dora Lieuellen, John A. Steele, Dr. G. Dallas Lind, Dr. Joseph Tingley, Alexander C. Hopkins, G. Walter Dale, W. T. Eddingfield, and Gustavus L. Spillmann. In three years he had paid for the buildings and grounds, had secured a fine library and ample apparatus, and had an annual enrollment of nearly 1,000 different students.

The college, though wholly private property, was now on a sure foundation. Its students were in nearly all the States and Territories of the Union. Wherever they were found the institution was favorably known.

President Adams died November 25, 1882, being but 30 years of age. Mrs. Ora A. Adams, his wife, then became president. Professor Steele was made vice-president, which position he filled until his death, May 5, 1885. Under the control of Mrs. Adams the attendance increased. Many improvements were made in the building. The library was increased and new apparatus purchased. Several thousands of young men and women have been assisted in their effort to become better citizens. The graduates have taken prominent positions in all the professions and avocations of life.

July 10, 1889, President Adams was married to Prof. James A. Joseph, and desiring to be relieved of public duties was succeeded in the presidency by Charles A. Hargrave, who since 1885 has been secretary and treasurer of the institution.

The object of the institution is to meet the wants of those persons who have not the necessary money and time to complete a long college course of study. The classes are so arranged that students can enter at any time and begin profitable work without delay. Perfect liberty in selecting studies is allowed. While there are regular courses of study, a majority of those in attendance are irregular. The farm boy attends during the winter. The teacher comes at the close of his school. The clerk enters whenever he can obtain leave of absence from the store. The founders of this institution believed that thousands of young people, who would never attend the State institutions or denominational colleges, could be led to enter such a school. The enormous attendance of this and kindred colleges shows that they were right in the opinion. A few months of enthusiastic, vigorous study make a wonderful improvement in the district teacher. A commercial course of study five months in length has enabled hundreds of young men just



CENTRAL NORMAL COLLEGE, DANVILLE.

entering business to increase their wages, and has placed educated men and women in charge of affairs of state.

The regular courses are as follows: Teachers', scientific, classical, special science, commercial, surveying and engineering, law, preparatory medical. There are departments of music, art, phonography, typewriting, and telegraphy. The first three courses are to be taken in the order named and make a three years' course of well graded study. This course includes a thorough study of the common branches, mathematics to calculus, two years of Latin, one year of Greek, a brief study of each of the natural sciences, one and a half years in literature and general history, one year in mental science and philosophy.

An honest endeavor is made to inspire the student with a love for learning. He is taught to investigate closely and to think for himself. An effort is made to preserve the individuality of the student. The graduate is well prepared for positions of importance in life, if he does not choose to continue the higher collegiate education. Some take the courses here preparatory to the regular courses of the best universities.

Although the school is non-sectarian, it is in every sense conducted on Christian principles. Strength of character is developed in the student by having him rely upon himself. He is made strong by proper exercise of the judgment as well as of the other powers of the mind.

THE SOUTHERN INDIANA NORMAL COLLEGE AND PRACTICAL BUSINESS INSTITUTE

Is an independent normal college, located at Mitchell, Lawrence County, Ind. The school is the product of private enterprise and was established April 6, 1880, and incorporated June 7 of the same year. In 1881 a substantial two-story brick building was erected for the school at a cost of about $20,000 and furnished at still further expense.

The first president was W. F. Harper, the founder of the Central Normal at Danville, who served from April, 1880, to April, 1882. He was succeeded by W. E. Lugenbeel, who acted in the same capacity from April, 1882, to September, 1885, when he associated with him in the control of the institution Mr. E. F. Sutherland, the present president, who became sole director in March, 1888, and has so continued since.

The school sustains the following departments: Preparatory, teachers', scientific, classical, engineering, business, fine art, musical, phonographic, typewriting, manual training, and a preparatory medical department. This institution instructs annually in its different departments 600 to 700 different students, both ladies and gentlemen, and is at present rapidly increasing in numbers. The object of the school is to impart as thorough a course of training in any department as can be secured at any other institution and this for the least possible money.

Since the organization of this college more than 3,000 young men and women have received special training for the work of the teacher and have gone forth to perform the teacher's duties. A special course for

the training of teachers is one of the most important of all the departments. This college has become widely and favorably known through this single line of work. Diplomas are awarded to all who complete the courses and pass the examinations.

The library is new, but contains about two thousand volumes upon all subjects, and is always open for free use of all students.

The following are some of the objective points which the faculty of the Southern Normal seek constantly to attain:

1. Training in the common branches.
2. Classification of courses.
3. Gradation of pupils according to advancement.
4. Training in philosophy of education and school management and methods.
5. Attention to primary work.
6. History of Educational Reformers.
7. Principles of Kindergarten Culture.
8. Imparting Professional Spirit.

There are similar institutions to these, newer enterprises and on a smaller scale, at various places in the State, which offer to the common-school teacher a cheap and rapid instruction in the common-school branches. Perhaps a majority of the counties in the State support during six or eight weeks of the summer months a "summer normal" for the special instruction of those who wish to prepare for teaching. Of the 14,000 teachers of the State the vast majority are not college graduates, and in present conditions can not be; the training which the normal schools have to offer gives them material improvement for the performance of their duties.

Indiana has been a State of the Union but a little more than three-score years. Her people are but one generation removed from the rough and hardy pioneers. That generation could have had but little time and opportunity for the culture and requirements of the college classics. Some of them are still living, and are yet exercising an influence in the affairs of the State. As the first to come from civilization, they cleared the Indiana forests, drained her soil, and endured all the conflicts of frontier life. In their struggle for material existence, while making homes for themselves and contesting the ground with the wolf and the savage, they held education in high esteem, and they were not unmindful of their duty to posterity. They prepared the way for the educational advantages which are now coming to harvest. With their first log cabins in which they lived, they introduced the principle of State education in their log-cabin schools and in their Territorial "university," and from that day to this they have not wavered in their determination to develop the idea of public education with the development of the commonwealth.

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830

[*Whole Number* 117

BUREAU OF EDUCATION

CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 2, 1891

THE FOURTH

INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS

ST. PETERSBURG, RUSSIA

BY

C. D. RANDALL

OFFICIAL DELEGATE FROM THE UNITED STATES

WASHINGTON

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

1891

GOLD MEDAL OFFERED BY THE IMPERIAL GOVERNMENT OF RUSSIA TO THE WRITER OF THE BEST ESSAY ON THE LIFE AND WORK OF JOHN HOWARD.

[*Whole Number* 171

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., December 13, 1890.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit the manuscript of a circular upon the Fourth International Prison Congress, held at St. Petersburg, Russia, June 15 to 24, 1890.

The circular has been prepared at my request by the Hon. C. D. Randall, of Michigan, one of the leading authorities of this country on subjects connected with prison management and reform. It is intended to present to the public a summary of the proceedings and results of the three previous international congresses and the proceedings and addresses of the one last held.

Believing this subject to be one of great interest and to bear very directly upon many educational problems, I respectfully recommend the publication of the monograph as a circular of information of this Bureau.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

COLDWATER, MICH.,
December 8, 1890.

DEAR SIR: I herewith respectfully present you my report of the Fourth International Prison Congress, held in St. Petersburg in June last, which I had the honor to attend by arrangement with you and under appointment by the Department of State as official delegate. To this has been added an appendix giving an account of the entertainments and excursions tendered to the Congress, a monograph by Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy relative to the monuments in Russia to the memory of John Howard, an abstract of the conference of the managers of the reformatory and industrial institutions of Great Britain, in Glasgow, which I attended in part on my way to St. Petersburg, and an account of an interview with Mr. Komorsky, the inspector-general of the prisons of Siberia, at a meeting of the Société Générale des Prisons in Paris, in December last.

Very respectfully yours,

C. D. RANDALL.

Hon. WILLIAM T. HARRIS,
Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
The invitation and the congress	9
The object of the congress—prison reform	10
The location of the congress—Russia	12
Progressive movement in Russian prison reform	15
Russian prison statistics	24
Is prison reform needed in the United States	27
The history of prison congresses:	
The first movements	33
The London international prison congress	34
The international prison congress in Stockholm	40
Opening of the congress	43
Programme	46
Resolutions	47
Regulations of the International Penitentiary Commission, articles 1 to 16 inclusive	50
Names of the delegates from the United States	51
Banquets in honor of the Stockholm congress	51
The congress of Rome	54
Programme of the congress, with the conclusions adopted	60
Souvenir of the congress	65
A few of the maxims and thoughts	65
The exposition of prison labor	67
Dr. Enoch C. Wines	69
Festivals and banquets	71
Advance opinions on the St. Petersburg Congress	72
Education and crime	74
Preparation for the International Prison Congress of St. Petersburg	76
Address of the delegate from Russia	78
Circular relative to international statistics of correctional institutions	80
Circular to the members of the international prison commission and to official delegates	81
The subjects and the reporters as last announced:	
Section first—Legislation	82
Section second—Prison discipline	84
Section third—Preventive measures	85
Preliminary statement	89
The programme	92
The assistant reporters	93
Meeting of the International Prison Commission	94
Opening of the Fourth International Prison Congress	98
The international prison exposition	103
Regular sessions of the congress	109
List of members	110

Page.
Discussions in the sections 117
Dr. Motet on intoxication and crime 118
Mr. Brockway on incorrigibility 124
Various reporters on incorrigibility 128
The contract system 132
Mr. Herbette on contract labor 138
Mr. Randall on prevention 139
Mr. Fuchs and others on prevention 148
Senator Roussell on evil influences of parents 156
Professor Spassowitch on John Howard 159
Senator Canonico on prison reform 161
Mr. Randall on Russia and the congress 169
Resolutions voted by the congress 171
Closing of the general assembly 182
Official dispatch of Minister Smith 191

APPENDIX.

Excursions and banquets 197
Memorials of John Howard 221
Conference of managers of reformatory and industrial institutions in Glasgow. 231
The new prison in St. Petersburg 239
Interview with Mr. Komorsky 243

THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS,

HELD IN

ST. PETERSBURG, JUNE, 1890.

PART I.

PREVIOUS CONGRESSES AND PREPARATIONS FOR THE FOURTH.

THE INVITATION AND THE CONGRESS.

By invitation of the Emperor of Russia, the Fourth International Prison Congress was called to meet in St. Petersburg, in June, 1890, to be composed of official and non-official delegates, as were the congresses of London, Stockholm, and Rome. In these congresses the European nations have been represented as well as this country. With others, this country was invited to send a delegate and also to take part in the exposition of prison labor and construction.

The congress is not of Russian, but of American origin, as will be shown in this paper. Its formation and management are with a permanent body known as the International Penitentiary Commission, composed of delegates from various nations. The articles of organization will be found herein. This commission holds stated sessions, makes preparations for the congresses, publishes the proceedings, and by the collection and dissemination of useful information labors for prison reform.

This commission prescribes a programme, or list of questions, and appoints in various nations persons interested in social questions to write thereon. These reports from specialists, when received, are published in pamphlet form before the session of each congress, and serve as a basis for discussion; and out of these discussions come the resolutions adopted. These pamphlets are distributed to delegates in advance of the sessions. Some are a few pages in length, while others are a hundred or more, forming extended and able essays on the question submitted.

The proceedings of the congresses are published in book form and in the French language, all discussions and publications being in that language. All questions of the programme are first discussed in one of the

three sections, preventive, reformatory, or penal, and afterwards in the general assembly, where the conclusions are adopted. The proceedings of the congress of London are in one large octavo volume in the English language. The congress of Stockholm occupies two large volumes, and that of Rome six, all of which are in French. These volumes form a unique and highly valuable literature, covering the various branches of penology. Among the speakers and writers are men of international reputation, scholars, statesmen, and specialists. These volumes on social questions would enrich any library. These congresses are held about five years apart. Marked interest has each time been shown by the governments in the purposes and labors of the congresses, and every courtesy, attention, and encouragement has been extended to the members.

The object of this report is to call attention to what the International Prison Congress is doing for prison reform, to show the interest taken therein by most of the nations, and to inform the general public concerning a subject of most vital importance, though seldom so considered.

Other governments have been brought into this work through influences emanating from America, and they now very naturally expect that this country will continue its efforts in prison reform in these congresses. While the United States made appropriations to pay the expenses of representation in the congress in London and in Stockholm, where it was represented by the lamented Dr. Wines, it has not continued that material aid which other nations now uniformly extend. At the sessions of the commission in Geneva the following language appears in the proceedings:

> We should not pass in silence the letter addressed by our president to His Excellency General Harrison at the time of his accession to the Presidency of the United States, to present the congratulations of the Commission and to draw his attention to the future work of the congress. We hope that the country of Dr. Wines will be officially represented at the reunion at St. Petersburg.

THE OBJECT OF THE CONGRESS—PRISON REFORM.

At the opening session of the congress of Rome, his excellency Mr. Mancini, deputy of Parliament and minister of state, spoke as follows relative to prison reform:

> While I have the honor to address you I do not think it useless to add a word to dissipate an unfortunate prejudice which has generally arisen and to refute a profound error which attributes to the studies and discussions of our prison congresses, as well as to the reforms they promote, an end exclusively humane and philanthropic; as if we would protect malefactors and subject society to dangerous utopian experiments. No, gentlemen; we strongly protest against this dangerous error. We labor to discover a system of just and efficient repression, above all a sufficient safeguard to the peace, security, and good order of human society. This truly social and civilizing object requires the abandonment of every useless, dangerous, or corrupting penalty now in use.

Gentlemen, this investigation is worthy of your efforts and worthy the coöperation of all men of heart. I hope your noble work in the Congress of Rome will be fruitful in useful and practical results.

M. Ferdinand Désportes, the accomplished secretary of the "Société Générale des Prisons" and author of "La Science Pénitentiaire," in his preface to that work states the object of the congress as follows:

Is it not necessary at least to investigate this terrible problem, how the reformation of the guilty can be secured without sacrificing the principle of punishment; to what extent the voice of humanity can be obeyed without weakening the act of correction and rendering it illusive by mitigation; how a just anxiety for the individual can be reconciled to the interests of society; how we can at the same time punish the malefactor and protect the community; by what means childhood and youth can be saved from the contagion of vice; in a word, the criminal from the first relapse to evil? Such questions are calculated to arouse the solicitude of the Christian, the moralist, the philosopher, and the constant consideration of statesmen worthy of the name, and if anything can aid in their solution it is the tried experience of civilized nations, the acquaintance with examples they furnish, and the counsels and suggestions of men who in different places have passed their lives in a profound study of these problems.

This is why the International Prison Congress is of such high importance and practical scope. This is why it can be so useful in popularizing its results and extending its information and in calling public attention to the most formidable social evils and their proper remedies.

At the conclusion of his work M. Désportes further says:

Prison reform will succeed everywhere, because it will be everywhere desired. Our century, which has required and prepared for it, will see it accomplished. In a few years there will no longer be a people who do not comprehend that it is for their interest not only to arrest crime, but to dry up the source; not only to punish, but to render punishment useless; not only to construct prisons, but to empty them. And that to empty them two things are necessary: to make better those who have been brought there, and to divert to other ways those who have been led there by vice, abandonment, or poverty. * * * The Congress of Stockholm has had in view the public good only, the security of society, its legitimate defense against crime, and it has found the secret of this defense in the equal development of two principles—reform and expiation.

Concerning prison reform, the late venerable and distinguished Charles Lucas, member of the Institute of France, who for over sixty years had been the most intelligent and able advocate of prison reform, in his opening address at the formation of the "Société Générale des Prisons," said:

For more than twenty centuries the problem of education in society and in the family has been discussed. Ah, well; this problem is discussed to-day. We always labor for its solution. And it is only a half century since the problem of prison education was presented, and we have already seen the results. Can we say we have accomplished nothing? Without doubt we always seek a definite solution. But then, penitentiary reform has made its way, and the present should inspire hope for the future. We can not assuredly give a civilizing idea an impulse like the power of transmission by electricity. If man has to-day conquered space, he has not conquered the time it requires for the solution of all questions of reform, the gradual development of civilization, the softening of manners, and the advance of public intelligence. It is on this condition alone that reform advances surely to the future. But when such a reform as that of prison régime can so quickly secure such results we have the right to say with confidence that its future success is certain.

The object of these congresses is to discuss the many questions relative to poverty and crime. How to prevent and reduce them to the lowest possible minimum; how to cut off the sources of crime by the care and education of dependent children, restoring them to family homes; how to reform prisoners of both sexes, old and young, that they may be respectable self supporting citizens, are some of the problems under discussion. Prison construction also, its adaptation and economy, and various systems of management, diet, and clothing, and the best method of child saving by the State or private aid and prisoners' aid societies, are also fully considered. In all these discussions the experience of practical men in all civilized countries is brought forward to enlighten, explain, and convince. The objects are broad as humanity itself, and the purposes are Christian and statesmanlike.

RUSSIA AS THE LOCATION FOR THE CONGRESS.

The invitation of the Russian Government to the Fourth International Prison Congress, to meet in St. Petersburg, was earnest, friendly, and cordial. In the minds of many of our people this has created some surprise, for the reason that a sentiment, growing out of the publication of alleged cases of cruel treatment of criminals and politicals, has widely prevailed, causing an impression that there was no desire in that country for humane prison management and that prison reform was substantially unknown. This has made many of our people believe that the Russians were a hard and cruel people, which is the reverse of the fact. As a people they are generous and friendly. It is not in the province of this paper to discuss, admit, or refute these cases of alleged cruelty. In conversing with prominent Russians, with those very near the Emperor, they frankly said to the writer: "We do not dispute that there is much truth in these charges, but what we claim is that only the worst side of our system is given, and that very many kind words could be said of us which would arouse a friendly sentiment in our behalf." This report can not approve or excuse transportation. Social science and public sentiment long ago condemned it. Its injurious effect on the convicts and on the colony and its admitted reflex influence on the country sending out its citizens are well established.

It is not because Russia has serious faults in her prison system—all countries have them—that the congress was called to St. Petersburg. It was because there are few nations for the past 100 years that have taken a more intelligent interest in prison reform, nor is there any country which in that time has made greater advances. Russia has always been a powerful friend and ally of America, and what Americans say or do should be in appreciation of that friendship which was certainly once a powerful factor in preserving our nationality. We should never forget that.

It is doubtful whether any country in the past one hundred years

has made greater progress in prison reform than Russia. During that time it has made penology a subject of thoughtful and constant study. The different sovereigns have taken a lively interest in the investigation, appointing learned commissions for the purpose. These commissions have thoroughly investigated prisons, their systems and conditions, both in Russia and western Europe, making extended reports to their Government which have served as the basis of many reforms. While all the best features of prison management, at home and abroad, were not always immediately adopted, there was a steady advance on the whole, a steady progress from the semi-Asiatic methods of over a hundred years ago to the modern methods of western Europe. Great reforms have been slow in Russia. They have always been slow even under our skies, where we have had for centuries all the light afforded by Christianity, the arts, the sciences, the civil and common law, and by every powerful civilizing force. It was only a short time since that we Americans hung women for witchcraft and banished men and women from the colonies for religious opinion; that we enslaved 4,000,000 people; and yet have in our borders the chain-gang-lease system. It may be that we ought to keep silent. Even the superficial student of history knows that Russia in the time of Peter the Great was more Asiatic than European, and knows of her great advance since then. It may be some time before her social and political systems are logical and correct in all respects. Her civilization may be Russian, peculiarly so, and yet as acceptable. There is a strong Russian party that believes in a Russian and not a western European civilization. It is only since Peter the Great that Russia has taken its place as a great civilized European power. In that time it has made enormous strides. Much of its time and effort have been required to subdue robber tribes and clans of the Caucasian and Asiatic border. Law and order, if not liberty, have everywhere followed its flag. It is now bringing into the domain of civilization northern and central Asia. Before this century closes it will open by transcontinental railways and otherwise an immense region to travel and commerce. A government that does this has done a vast work for the Christian world.

At home, Russia has established and maintains universities and professional schools of a high order. Common schools have been established and are slowly increasing, though inadequate for their purpose. Civilization in Russia is not at rest. There is a constant and steady progress. There are usages, methods, laws, and systems which have long prevailed and still exist which could not exist in this country. The same might be said of other European nations. But new laws and new systems will in time make their way in Russia as well as in Europe generally.

In prison reform the best may be anticipated. Russia has a special prison department in its central administration, at the head of which is a very accomplished and humane gentleman, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy,

and the improvement of prisons and prison discipline are matters of his careful and profound study. The correction of abuses may seem slow, but this prevails everywhere when the correction or management is left to officials, and the difficulty is immensely increased where the local administration is thousands of miles away from the central office. The only effective remedy for such abuses under any system is the free, searching inspection of the public press, which in time must prevail in all countries. In this respect what Russia most needs to-day is a press with reasonable freedom to discuss social and political questions and all acts or omissions of the administration. The power of the press is a growing one in spite of the restrictions of an abused censorship. The newspapers of Russia are now permitted to speak with more freedom than foreign papers of its internal policy. At the same time, travel, commerce, and social intercourse with other countries will continue to exert a healthful influence and will gradually work changes in her political and social system.

And it can be truthfully said that of all great reforms in Russia since the advent of Peter the Great, the greatest have found their origin and promotion in the sovereigns, whether in general or in prison administration. Peter the Great endeavored to force his people too rapidly into European methods, which were not always adapted to them. There has been too hurried an adoption of laws of western Europe into the Russian code. The result of this has been a code of laws which has been divergent in principle and contradictory in provisions without a precise criterion of responsibility. It has borrowed provisions which were ill adapted to accomplish the ends designed In many instances the system of punishment is impracticable and unsuitable. The new code is intended to remedy these defects and will soon do so. On the whole, the provisions of the criminal code are very mild compared with the laws of other countries. Under it the death penalty no longer exists except for crimes against the safety of the state or the person of the Emperor. The new code aims to reduce the extent of penalties about one-half. Aside from the exile feature and the administrative process for political prisoners, it is doubtful whether any more humane prison system exists. The tendency is strongly towards the gradual discontinuance of the exile system, and by many it is thought that it will be entirely discontinued within two or three years. Mr. Leonidas Schmourlo, a Russian writer, says in the bulletin of the Société Générale des Prisons of France, "The prison administration is inclined to suppress within two years transportation to Siberia;" but there are several reasons why this must be taken with considerable allowance. England tried transportation for many years and abandoned it. France still adheres to the system. Its history does not encourage its continuance. The few accounts we have of the operation of the system in Russia come from outside sources, and may be true and may be sensational to some extent. The accounts we receive from European sources are mainly

from those who are unfriendly to Russia. No Russian jurist has ever yet treated the subject for the 250 years it has existed, and so its true history must remain unwritten. We might say with Jules Sandeau:

> I wish that Experience had a soul, that it might remember the tears it had cost.

But when we would censure the existing Government of that country for the exile of prisoners, we should remember that it is not entirely accountable for a custom 250 years old, deeply incorporated in the penal system, and acceptable to a great extent to the public sentiment of that country so far as its relates to criminals. It would take many years and great expense to substitute fully other methods for it. Whether transportation will be decreased or discontinued entirely must depend on public sentiment and on prison construction in Russia and in Siberia. Very much, however, is being constantly done to relieve the exile system of its many hardships, especially in the establishment of better methods for transfer by land and by water.

The question has been frequently asked whether the congress discussed Siberian exile. A general answer may be given that the congress did not discuss the penal system of any country. It discussed general principles only. The international prison commission had not placed on the programme any question directly relating to transportation, and hence it could not have been properly introduced. This may have been an act of courtesy on the part of the commission. No member of the congress appeared to have any tendency to act other than in a most friendly manner to Russia and its people, who placed before the congress, by the great exposition and its reports, full information regarding its prison and exile management. There was no apparent hesitation on the part of Russians or the Imperial Government to present any feature of its system which members exhibited any desire to understand. Apparently all was open and free for investigation by the foreign visitors.

PROGRESSIVE MOVEMENT IN RUSSIAN PRISON REFORM.

To present some of the advances in prison reform in Russia this outline is made:

At the beginning of the eighteenth century the prison system in Russia was absolutely barbarous. The ordinary punishments were death, transportation to Siberia, and various corporal punishments, with or without mutilation.

In the reign of Empress Elizabeth, 1741–1762, an official report relates the death of a prisoner by starvation, and states that one-thirtieth die from the same cause.

Empress Catherine II, 1762–1796, undertook to remedy this deplorable condition. In 1767 she organized a commission charged with preparing a new code of laws, and issued herself lengthy instructions to that body. She abolished mutilation, and proclaimed a principle new in Russian

legislation, that of reformation; that punishments chosen should be those which would make the most desirable impression on the mind and would be less cruel to the body. She declared that the death of the criminal would be less deterrent than long imprisonment, by which the prisoner could repair by his subsequent life the damage he had done to society.

The new laws organized the local management of prisons, and provided in each province a bureau of public charities, which was to establish houses of repression, destined for disorderly persons who might be confined by the courts, or by parents or masters. In 1783 workhouses were established. The duration of imprisonment was not fixed. By his labor the prisoner could repair the injury he had done, contribute to his own support, and shorten his term by good behavior. In 1787, under the inspiration of John Howard, Catherine II undertook, under her own hand, a plan for the improvement of prison management. In each province there was to be a prison, with three departments; the first for the accused, the second for those condemned for a term, and the third for those under sentence of death or for life; in the second were also to be those condemned to transportation. The accused and convicts were to be placed in cells, and the exiles in common. Labor was to be introduced for life prisoners and others. Priests were to visit the condemned and labor for their reformation. These were the first steps in prison reform in Russia; well planned but little executed under Catherine II.

Alexander I continued prison reform under the inspiration of another Englishman, a disciple of John Howard. This was Walter Venning, who by his influence induced the Government to establish the "Society for the Protection of Prisons," which existed until 1863, and was a very important factor in prison administration. It was composed of both sexes, who paid an annual subscription, and elected a president, who was approved by the Emperor. The declared object of the society was "to secure the moral reform of prisoners and to ameliorate their condition." An executive committee met at least monthly to discuss questions of interest to the society. It was purely a private association which supervised and assisted the administration of prisons, and by its counsels and pecuniary aid improved the régime. It especially aimed to classify the prisoners, to secure their improvement, and to organize labor. Afterwards the Government intrusted the feeding of prisoners to the executive committee, by which it attained a quasi-public position.

During the reign of Nicholas I, prison reform in Russia was materially advanced. A new criminal code was made and published, and among other things—

First. It discriminated between criminal and correctional punishments.

Second. It instituted a double scale of punishments, one of which was applied to those subjected to chastisement and named the others who

were exempt. The latter were the nobles, members of the clergy, honorable citizens, and merchants of the two highest guilds.

Third. The punishment by the knout, of Tartar origin, was suppressed. Sometimes an hour was exhausted in giving twenty blows of the knout. Often on the caprice of the executioner depended the life of the condemned.

Fourth. The corporal punishments retained, such as the rod, were to be only accessory to imprisonment.

The new prison regulations were published at the same time as the new code. They proclaimed the necessity of the moral reform of the condemned, by the separation of individuals susceptible of reform; by teaching trades, by organizing labor, and by moral instruction.

The death penalty was retained only for crimes against the person of the sovereign and the safety of the state. Confinement at hard labor was applied to the gravest crimes. However severe the punishment, it still favored the reformation of the convict, who, after a certain time, by good conduct, could pass into the reform division, receiving less severity in treatment. He no longer was to be in irons; could attend public festivals and be relieved from work; could earn money, and after a while, by permission, might marry and construct a house in the limits of the public workyards or near the mine or factory where he labored. This system contained the elements of conditional liberation.

The institution of correctional companies was another unique provision. Vagrants and the vicious and incorrigible who were held for reformation, as well as for punishment, were organized into companies, and were utilized by the State. Under orders and submitting to military commands they were employed in exterior work on forts, fortifications, etc.

The workhouses or houses of repression were for prisoners committed for 1 to 3 years, divided into three classes, according to age: First, those under 20 years; second, those 20 to 45 years; and third, those above 45 years. The régime was to some extent reformatory. For good conduct they were to receive part of their earnings.

In the prisons proper were received those sentenced for terms ranging from 3 months to 2 years. The prisoners of the two classes were lodged separately, the convicts being confined in cells. The men were separated from the women, minors from adults, and nobles and officers from the inferior classes. There was yet no reformatory discipline in these prisons. The system of transporting prisoners to Siberia had never been satisfactory. It was first established as a humane measure—as a substitute for the death penalty. The families of the condemned were allowed to go with them. The exiles suffered greatly by the long journey. In 1853 the prisons were so overcrowded that in order to diminish the numbers transportation was increased and given preference. Colonization was attempted and was very expensive. Houses built by the Government for families remained empty, and those constructed for single men

were the resort of brigands. "If you meet on the highroad," said an official report, "a man half naked, notwithstanding the frost and cold, emaciated by hunger, with countenance depressed, despair and resignation upon his features, know that he is a colonist." Escapes were frequent, and vagrancy among the exiles became a scourge. In 1882, in four districts, out of 20,199 exiles 7,375 were fugitives. The crimes the convicts committed exasperated the inhabitants, who treated them without pity. The number of vagrant exiles in Siberia was estimated at 40,000. The average number of exiles yearly was 10,000. The inhabitants of Siberia strongly objected to the system. They said that it "arrested the development of the country and inspired indifference for its welfare, and although rich in resources it remained backward more than any other country of the Orient." Colonization has been improved since then. The reign of Alexander II led to greater reforms in the penal system. The abolition of serfdom February 19, 1861, was the crowning glory of his reign. That act alone made its author illustrious.

In 1863 the following modifications were made in regard to punishments:

1. All corporal punishments supplementary to imprisonment were abolished.

2. Women were always to be exempt from corporal punishment.

3. The mark or brand was abolished.

4. Corporal punishment, as the main punishment, was replaced by imprisonment.

5. The law of 1853, for relieving the prisons, by substituting corporal punishment for imprisonment, was abolished.

6. The substitution of transportation for detention in the correctional companies was also abolished.

7. The maximum detention in correctional companies was reduced to 4 years, and imprisonment in houses of repression, workhouses, and fortresses was reduced one-third.

In 1862 Alexander II inaugurated a great reform, the separation of the judicial and executive departments of the government. The inquisitorial criminal procedure was abolished. No one was to be convicted except on a regular judicial trial.

The ukase of 1863 put all prisons under the direction of the minister of the interior. Houses of arrest and correctional asylums for young delinquents were to be established.

The houses of arrest were to be constructed, supported, and directed by the provincial states, which should receive from the government for this purpose the receipts from fines. The punishments in these houses were to consist of imprisonment with all alleviation possible. Leave of absence for three days was to be granted in case of the sickness of parents. The time spent on leave of absence was to be deducted from the term.

Correctional asylums for young delinquents were created by the provincial states or provinces, by private associations, or by individuals. The young prisoners were to receive primary instruction and some were to have an agricultural or industrial apprenticeship. In case of good conduct they could obtain conditional liberation. The administration of each establishment was to act as a prisoner's aid society or "patronage" society for discharged prisoners. In 1883 Russia had eleven asylums or colonies for young convicts with 600 inmates.

On the island of Saghalien, at the mouth of the Amoor River on the eastern coast of Siberia, Russia has established a prison depot to which she now sends many prisoners not confined in the local prisons. It is believed that this will in time displace banishment to Siberia.

Alexander II reorganized the transportation of prisoners on a more humane basis. In 1830 this branch of the service was barbarous. Loaded in irons, chained in couples, the convicts made the journey on foot, in all seasons, from the prisons of Russia to distant parts of Siberia; 2 years being occupied before the destination was reached, and the sufferings were untold. By improved methods the convicts were to go only in the summer and so far as practicable wagons, railroads, and steamboats were to be used.

In 1879 the following scale of punishments was established:

1. Transportation at hard labor for a long term or for life was continued.

2. Detention in a house of correction, the maximum to be six years, undergoing for a part of the time a cellular régime.

3. Imprisonment for one year with constant cellular régime and labor.

4. Confinement for three months in police stations or in houses of arrest.

In 1879 there was established a bureau known as the General Administration of Prisons, at the head of which is the able Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. Under general instructions from the Imperial Government, to this body has been committed the vast and complex questions of prison reform as presented in the administration of the Russian prison system. To this commission the Government says:

> Acting under the scale of punishments as prescribed in 1879, it is expected that the General Administration of Prisons will put in operation measures which experience shall indicate, and which will reform and perfect the prison system of the country. To attain this result no precise programme has been indicated by the Government, but the final end shall be prison reform.

No more important step has been taken in Russia than in the formation of this bureau, and the world may look for a very material advance in this respect in Russia within the next few years. While changes may not be introduced with haste, they will be the outgrowth of experience and when made will be permanent.

It is impossible in this paper to relate all the modifications introduced. To facilitate the solution of delicate problems connected with correc-

tional education of young prisoners, the Government has instituted periodical conferences between the directors of juvenile establishments. Three of these conferences have taken place—one in Moscow in 1881, one at Kiew in 1884, and the third in Moscow in 1889.

These are some of the propositions submitted by the conferences:

1. Farm labor answers the purposes of correctional education better than learning trades; yet, on account of social conditions, it is desirable to establish correctional institutions of a mixed character.

2. Correctional education should aim to produce intelligent artisans, capable of producing complete articles.

3. Young prisoners should not receive compensation. On their discharge they should have a bounty for good conduct.

4. There may be admitted to the same establishment young delinquents of different religions.

5. Corporal punishments should be forbidden, with some exceptions.

6. There should not be discharged from prisons convicts who are profoundly corrupt and who appear refractory to all moral reform.

7. The patronage of discharged prisoners is indispensable.

The conference in Moscow in 1881 declared as follows:

1. The term of imprisonment of young delinquents in reformatories should be fixed, not by the courts, but by the administration of the institutions. This would be an indeterminate sentence.

2. The authority of parents who abuse their children should be limited.

3. The administration should accord to young prisoners temporary leave of absence.

4. It is necessary to interdict the transfer in common of young and adult prisoners.

Some other subjects received attention, and among them were:

1. The organization of prison labor, which question has been submitted to the council of the empire.

2. The establishment of a corps of special wardens receiving technical education.

3. The establishment of a system of local inspection of prisons.

This imperfect sketch of the history and tendencies of prison reform in Russia may serve to call attention to the better side of the system in that country, and if so it will accomplish its purpose.

By those who know the most of the history of Russia it is believed that no country in the past 100 years has made greater progress in civilization and especially in her prison system. Former commissions and able writers have produced a rich literature in penology, to which extended and valuable additions were made as contributions to the Fourth International Prison Congress. She has many able writers in penology, and the authors are gentlemen distinguished in social and political life. Prominent among them are Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, chief of the administration of Russian prisons and president of the commis-

sion of the Fourth International Prison Congress, and Count Sollohub, now deceased, who was one of the very first promoters, with our Dr. E. C. Wines, of the international prison congresses. Since 1874 one of the professors in the University of St. Petersburg gives annually a course of lectures on penitentiary science. The first agricultural colony or institution for juvenile delinquents was established in 1870 near St. Petersburg. Since then others have been organized in the various provinces, and they have the sympathy and support of the people. Industrial and reformatory schools at St. Petersburg, Moscow, and in the provinces are successfully managed. In the larger cities there are numerous asylums for children, vagrants, orphans, and mendicants After the age of 10 or 12 years they are taught trades. They are largely supported by private charity. The Russian people are characterized for their benevolence, and readily contribute. Patronage societies have been established for discharged prisoners. The importance of preventive and reformatory work seems to be already fully understood in this great nation, which so lately has entered into association and competition with the highest civilizations.

Some statistics relative to exile may be of interest. The Emperor is directly accountable for only a very few sent to Siberia. There are four classes of exiles: First, those sentenced to hard labor; second, penal colonists; third, those simply banished, and fourth, women and children, voluntary exiles.

The banished are: First, vagrants; second, banished by the courts; third, banished by the village communes or the village *mir*, and fourth, banished by order of the minister of the interior, the politicals. The political exiles do not average over 150 a year. In 1887 there were exiled politicals as follows:

Noble class:		
Men	50	
Women	17	
Children	4	
	—	71
Nonprivileged class:		
Men	70	
Women	18	
Children	6	
	—	94
Total	165	

The theory of penal administration in Russia is a comparatively mild treatment for criminals convicted in court, and the severest treatment for politicals. This has especially been the attitude of the present Emperor. His great predecessor, who liberated the serfs, had already prepared a plan for a representative government. He had signed the document, which was to be immediately published. But like our great martyr, Lincoln, who had liberated four million slaves, he was struck down the next day by assassins, and his successor inaugurated the pol-

icy of crushing out the terrorists, no mercy to be shown. This brought in especial force the administrative process—a military trial with no jury. In all other cases the accused has in court the right of trial by jury. If banished he may be sent as a colonist, his family allowed to go with him, and he is furnished with a house, with land and seeds, and a year's subsistence. He can not return. The country he goes to is quite similar in climate to the one he leaves, and it is not so deadly as the colony for French exiles. In most American States we send the man to prison for a term of years and allow him no part of his earnings by which he might contribute to the support of his family, who often become destitute, and the children find their way into the almshouses and reformatories. Though we can not approve of transportation in any way, yet, so far as it affects family relations, it is in some respects superior to our general prison system. Since the assassination of Alexander II the administrative process for politicals has been in the nature of a military trial, a court martial. While as Americans we can not sanction a return to the star-chamber days of England, yet we can hope that if the Emperor succeeds in stamping out terrorism with an iron hand, he will, when he finds he can control the situation, reissue the great proclamation his august father prepared for the liberation of all his people, and in that way establish a representative government and guarantee trial by jury in all cases.

In general prison administration Russia claims a great advance in the last 10 years, under Mr. Wraskoy's management. This gentleman has recently published a report of the work for the period of 10 years 1879–1889, which appeared in St. Petersburg in 1890, in the French and Russian languages. Copies were presented to members of the congress. This work covers 210 royal octavo pages, and treats of the following subjects:

1. State of prison régime towards the end of the year 1870.
2. Measures relative to the constructive service of prison buildings.
3. Measures relative to prison administrations.
4. Measures relative to the economic service of prisons.
5. Measures destined to regulate the treatment of prisoners and the organization of prison work.
6. Measures relative to the régime of forced labor and transportation.
7. Measures relative to the transport service.
8. Measures relative to the sanitary service.
9. Measures relative to the expense of prison service and general considerations of the subject of such expenses.
10. Views of the future of the general administration of prisons.

This work shows in detail the new prisons constructed and the old ones repaired, claiming that all has been done that was possible in the financial condition of Russia succeeding the eastern wars of 1877 and 1879.

During the 10 years there has been expended, as stated in this report—

	Rubles.
For the organizing of new places of detention	4,431,004
For enlarging and reorganizing places of detention	2,962,870
For annual repairs of prisons	3,660,595
Total	11,054,469

If converted into American dollars this would be about $8,250,000.

The following appeared in the Journal de St. Petersburg at the time of the meeting of the congress, and it may be interesting to some to see how the press treats such subjects in that country:

La Gazette de St. Petersbourg [Russian] has inaugurated a series of articles on the International Prison Congress. Our colleague remarks that the Jurisprudence Society of our capital has, in view of the congress, elaborated many questions raised in the former congresses and presented here again. This is very interesting, not only in a theoretical but also in a practical view. Such, for example, is the report of M. Yadrintsew upon the substitution of imprisonment for transportation. This question was the order of the day with us for two years when our prison administration thought of abolishing transportation to Siberia. This project, elaborated at that time, was poorly received by the press, which extolled the humane character of transportation, and it ended by being put aside. The Jurisprudence Society has not the less declared resolutely against transportation. The basis of the contemporary system of punishments is detention. The report of M. Yadrintsew presents the conditions upon which imprisonment should rest to give it a reformatory character. Imprisonment, with the severity of its régime and forced labor, should not destroy human individuality nor deprive the prisoner of a hope for a better future.

Social science also resolutely declares against imprisonment for life. It excludes all hope for the recovery of liberty at some future day. The prisoner is looked upon as a pupil capable of improvement, who may pass through several grades of confinement, more or less severe, according to the advancement shown in good behavior and skill in the work assigned him.

In a contemporary social science point of view the ideal organization of imprisonment for a long term presents itself as follows: First, cellular confinement is imposed upon the prisoner when only punishment and not reformation is considered. This is to be followed by a period of congregate detention with labor in the shops, and prayers and lessons in common. In a sanitary point of view, work in the open air is recommended. When the prisoner shows moral improvement the greatest possible extension of open-air work should be given. After this, the cultivation of a lot set apart for his use should be given him near the prison. This might end by his liberation before the end of his term or a transfer to some philanthropic institution. In such a state of things, to maintain that transportation is humane, and the prison not, is to confound two ideas which have nothing in common between them. Transportation may be exemption from punishment disguised, while imprisonment, considered as a necessary result of the violation of law, may be beneficial in reviving in the meantime in the prisoner sentiments of goodness from which he has departed. Whatever in the end the result may be, we can not deny the elevated and humane aspirations of the contemporary penitentiary system. We are often charged with being too benevolent when the welfare enjoyed by the criminal is compared with the laborious poverty of the poor who have never committed crime. We can also discover that the educational character of existing prisons, mitigates too much the influences that should have a deterrent effect on the criminal. The congress of St. Petersburg will have more than one opportunity to discuss these questions.

Mr. Yadrintsew, in his report above named, sets forth strongly the views of the Jurisprudence Society on the subject of imprisonment for offenses requiring a long time in place of exile, and completes his essay with the following conclusions:

1. Imprisonment for a long term should include a system of reformatory education adapted to the persons to whom it is applied and the time for which they are confined. Consequently, in its organization it is necessary to conform to the general principles and details of education.

2. Prisoners condemned for life should be placed in the same prisons with those condemned for a long term, and should undergo the same régime, being always allowed the hope of liberation at some time in the future.

3. The progressive system is preferable for prisoners condemned for a long term.

4. The tendency to sedentary work appears to us to be exaggerated. Outside work ought to be introduced, especially for prisoners for a long term. Such work is entirely compatible with the interests of reformatory discipline, provided that the work be not public.

5. Private patronage for prisoners who are discharged after a long term, being insufficient, should be completed by official patronage.

The review of this report in the Gazette of St. Petersburg and again in the Journal of the same city, the discussion of the subject by the Society of Jurisprudence, through one of its members, is proof that the Russian people still discuss the merits of transportation and express opinions against it, as this distinguished society has.

Like all countries, Russia will work out its own great problems. The great transcontinental railway which is now under construction will reach from the capitals of the empire to the Pacific. Railroads, commerce, trade, civilization, and general progress introduced into the vast territory of Siberia, so unlimited in its agricultural and mineral resources, so diversified in soil, productions, and climate, will soon become too prosperous to be longer a penal colony. Such influences, if no other, will plant Siberia with homes instead of prisons.

SOME RUSSIAN PRISON STATISTICS.

The following is a list of Russian prisons and their average population in 1888:

EUROPEAN RUSSIA.

Prisons for long terms.

Central prisons:	Men.
Novobelgorod	275
Novoborissoglebsk	154
Iletsk	393
Reformatories:	
Archangel	686
Kichinew	173
Wilno	485
Wladimir	420
Wiazniki	309
Walogda	280

Prisons for long terms—Continued.

Reformatories—Continued.	Men.
Woronege	219
Wiatka	239
Taganrogue	114
Ekaterinoslaw	237
Kazaw	213
Kertch	68
Kiev	603
Kostroma	314
Kowsk	357
Moscow	205
Orel	405
Perm	320
Podolsk	195
Paltawa	281
Pskow	371
Riazan	283
St. Petersburg	520
Saratow	768
Simbirsk	349
Smolensk	297
Twer	274
Karkof	400
Kherron (No. 1273, No. 2516) and Iaroslaw	514

Prisons for short punishments; average population, 77,799; annual admissions, 590,714.

Institutions for young boys and girls.

For young boys:	
Hondzients, Warsaw	146
Kiev	63
Nigny-Novgorod	29
Sinebirsk	54
St. Petersburg	119
For girls:	
Moscow	114
Kazaw	40
Saratow	88
Karkof	51
Jaroslaw	25
Walogda	29
Balchew, Moscow	50

Establishments for detention, prevention, and for transportation.

Special prevention prisons (average population)	1,087
Depots of transfers (average population)	2,946
Annual admission	6,917

SIBERIA.

Establishments for a long term; average population.

Central prisons:	Men.
Alexandrovsk (Tobolsk No. 1653, No. 2299)	1,387
Mines of Nertchinsk:	
Algatchine and Pakrovsk	460
Zerentoni, Kadainsk, and Kontoniarsk	850
Kara	1,198
Forced labor prisons, factories:	
Irkootsk	83
Nikalaifsk	29
Oustkoutsk	16
Island of Saghalien	5,713
Special quarters for forced labor:	Women.
Irkootsk	61
Nikalaifsk	14
Oustkoutsk	15
Algatchine	14
Zerewtoni	37
Kara	477
Tymon	252
Korsakew	66
Hospital for convicts and exiles incapable of work:	Men.
Tobolsk	200
	Women.
Tomsk	289
Prisoners of short duration; average population, 7,801.	
Establishment for transfer service:	
Tomsk, average population, 1,729.	

RUSSIAN EUROPE.

Prison population.

Central prisons for men	858
Reformatories for men	10,645
Prisons for short term	79,462
Preventive prisons for men and women	1,050
Depots of transfers	3,295
Establishments for young boys and young girls:	
Girls—agricultural colonies	428
Industrial asylums	372
Young girls—industrial asylums	52

SIBERIA.

Forced labor prisons:	
Men	8,446
Women	900
Hospital for convicts and exiles, men and women	275
Correctional prisons, men	512
Prisons for short term, men and women	8,745
Depots of transfers	1,814

The statistics for 1873 are more clearly defined as follows: Places of detention January 1, 1883, were 832, with a population of 101,518, three establishments not reported. Received during the year, men 583,514; women, 88,236. There arrived in Siberia that year 13,003 exiles, as follows:

Convicts	2,140
Simple exiles	2,535
Exiled for vagabondage	1,607
Exiled recidivists	156
Individuals rejected by the Communes after conviction	4,707
Condemned by Persian associations to which they belonged	1,437
Transported by administrative order	421

In 1889 the prison service of European Russia had the following establishments: For long punishments, 3 central prisons and 31 reformatories. For short punishments, 626 prisons in the principal cities of the districts, 1,400 houses of arrest for prisoners convicted by justices of the peace, and 136 safety depots. For preventive detention and transportation, 3 special preventive prisons and 4 transfer depots. For young boys and young girls, 5 agricultural colonies. For young men private reformatories supervised by the general administrators of prisons, and 7 industrial asylums for young men in charge of the general administrators of prisons. Patronage institutions, 14 societies, having 88 committees and 568 sections.

Siberia in 1889: Prisons for a long term, 3 central prisons, 6 prisons in the mines of Nertchinsk, 3 factory prisons, 1 hospital for convicts and exiles incapable of work, 7 prisons on the islands of Saghalien, and 2 correctional establishments. Prisons for a short term, 36 prisons in chief towns of the districts. Transportation prisons, 1 depot of transfers and 92 *étape* or station houses.

IS PRISON REFORM NEEDED IN THE UNITED STATES?

The average American citizen has correctly an exalted opinion of his country and her institutions. Unless his attention is called to defects he sees none, and then scarcely acknowledges them. The prison system, if materially defective, in his opinion is good enough for the prisoner, and that an evil penitentiary system may increase pauperism and crime, paupers, criminals, and taxes is a subject he seldom considers as long as his business prospers and he is not personally affected. He is not aware that even in this great land the ratio of crime to the population has been on the increase many years. Nor does he know that the reason lies in corrupt methods. In keeping with the average citizen the average legislator gives little heed to the matter. As a result the General Government has no prison system, properly speaking. The nation has a criminal code and has provided punishments for the violation of its laws. There are constant trials and convictions for counterfeiting, smuggling, for violation of the revenue

laws, and for all offenses in the sole jurisdiction of the General Government. For the temporary or long confinement of prisoners the Government has no prisons excepting the military prison at Fort Leavenworth and three or four Territorial jails and the jail and workhouse in the District of Columbia. Before trial the prisoners are placed in the jails, and on conviction are distributed among the prisons or houses of correction in the several States. No heed is given to their reformation.

The Detroit house of correction has for years been one of the places for United States prisoners. Some States will not receive them and all now require compensation for their support. Should all the States refuse them the General Government would have no place for their detention, and the tendency seems that way.

In his report for 1889 the Attorney-General urges the establishment of a Government penitentiary and reformatory and the organization of a prison bureau. But under the present system the General Government does not construct or maintain prisons. The system is very simple. It arrests, tries, convicts, imprisons, and then abandons. It is the doctrine and practice of riddance. Like transportation simple, the convict is put out of the way and that is the end of it. All questions of reform, patronage, relapse into crime and the more important problems relative to the prevention of crime have no place in this system. There is little discussion in the Senate or House on prison systems or on means to prevent the increase of crime in greater ratio than the increase of population. In France, in England, and in the other great nations the ablest men in Parliament, Senate, or House of Deputies discuss ably and intelligently the great necessity of prison reform. The neglect of our nation in this respect does not relieve it of great responsibilities. There is need that Congress should discuss penitentiary science and adopt improvements in prisons and in prison discipline. It may well study this subject at home and abroad, wherever valuable information may be obtained. While in some respects this country is in advance of Europe in prison construction and management, in many others it is behind. Every nation may well study the methods of others.

This nation should set an example for the States. Every State has its own criminal code and the methods of punishment are wonderfully diversified. The same crime has various forms of punishment. There is no uniformity and no apparent effort to have any. In some States the prisons are constructed on the most approved models. Sanitary principles have been duly considered. Reformation has been given ample consideration and application. Appliances for prison labor by the State or by contract are supplied, and everything has been done that is practicable to insure the best prison management. In other States there are no prison buildings and no attempt at the reformation of prisoners. In those States, humanity and economy, which are inseparable, are wanting. While our people have been for years

reading the accounts of suffering attending the punishment of crimes in other countries, they forget that in our own there exists a system which rivals in severity that of any other. The convict-lease system, which prevails in Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Kentucky, Georgia, Texas, Alabama, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana, needs to receive the condemnation of a healthy public sentiment. The South, by her own distinguished son Geo. W. Cable has described the horrors of this system. His account in his address before the National Conference of Charities in Louisville in 1883 should be read by all. One other writer in that conference said that it was "a system worthy of the Dark Ages, a disgrace to humanity and to several States of this proud nation," and "should not be tolerated in a civilized land." In his conclusions Mr. Cable says:

1. That by the very ends for which it exists it makes a proper management of prisons impossible, and lays the hand of arrest upon reformatory discipline.
2. That it contents itself, the State, and the public mind with prisons that are in every way a disgrace to civilization.
3. That in practice it is cruelly brutal.
4. That it hardens, debases, and corrupts criminals; committed to it by law in order that, if possible, they may be reformed and reclaimed to virtue and society.
5. That it fixes and enforces the suicidal and inhuman error that the community must not be put to any expense for the reduction of crime or the reformation of criminals.
6. That it inflicts a different sentence upon every culprit that comes into its clutches from that which the law and the court has pronounced, so that there is not to-day a single penitentiary convict from the Potomac to the Rio Grande who is receiving the sentence really contemplated by the law under which he was condemned.
7. That it kills like a pestilence, teaches the people to be cruel, sets up a false system of clemency, and seduces the State into the committal of murder for money.
8. That in 2 years it permitted 1,100 prisoners to escape.

Under this system convicts are leased to private parties or companies for any number of years. Sometimes they are worked within or without the walls of the prison, quartered in camps, herded in stockades, and transferred from place to place with a military guard; the oldest and boys under 18 herded together day and night. Prisoners are frequently sentenced for 15, 20, 30, 40, or 50 years, and it is seldom that any survive 10 years of this brutal slavery in prison or in the convict camp. But one should read Mr. Cable's paper. Its burning words should secure early reform. In the States where the best systems prevail there is need of improvement. In one like Michigan, the most radical preventive system is established by the education of dependent children and their early placement in families. With a population of over 2,000,000, there are only a few over 200 dependent children to be cared for by the State, in the State public school at Coldwater, at a cost of about $35,000 per annum. There is in that State only 1 child to 10,000 people to be cared for by the public in this school and only about 75 diseased or feeble-minded in the poorhouses.

By contrast, take the State of New York, which boards its dependent

children in sectarian asylums. There were by the official reports of 1887 in that State the great number of 20,205 dependent children—one in every 263 of the population and supported at an expense of over $2,000,000. Other as remarkable instances could be given. In one State the prisons are self-supporting, while in others they are a burden upon the taxpayers. In some there are serious attempts to reform prisoners. In others there is no such effort. In a few there are patronage societies; in most of them none. In some the contract system prevails. In others it is prohibited by the Constitution. In most of the States the Governor is unlimited in the pardoning power; in others he is limited or the power is given to a commission. The same crime is variously punished. One State hangs for murder, another imprisons for life, while another has experimented in execution by electricity.

There never has been any attempt to secure a uniform code for the States. There never has been any convention from the various States for that purpose, though its utility is apparent.

Is it not time that the nation should set a worthy example for the States? When we consider the variety of prison systems in America, the perfection of some and the great imperfection of others, and the lack of a prison system by the General Government, it would seem that there is good reason why our government should investigate further at home and abroad all that pertains to the subject. Other countries have much to learn and much to impart, and so have we. The International Prison Congress, vast in its resources for valuable information, may well be resorted to by any country to impart and to receive. There are some American reformatories and prisons of a high grade, and there are distinguished gentlemen connected with their management who have a national and international reputation as specialists in social science. The National Prison Association has for many years been a powerful factor in this country in prison reform; and the National Conference of Corrections and Charities has also been a great force in the same field, and especially in the promotion of measures for the prevention of crime. These agencies have done much to advance prison reform, and will continue to do so.

It is gratifying to note the effort made in our present Congress for a national prison system. The bill which early in the session 1889–90 passed the House of Representatives provides for three national prisons, one north and one south of the thirty-ninth degree of north latitude and east of the Rocky Mountains, and one west of the Rocky Mountains, at a cost of $1,600,000, including $100,000 for workshops. Provision is made for commutation for good behavior and for separation of the younger from the older convicts. These prisons would hold the present number of convicts. By the report of the Attorney-General for the year ending June 30, 1889, there were received that year, 1,083 prisoners. The total number in custody during that year was 2,307 and there were then in different prisons and reformatories throughout the United States

1,202. At present, this would furnish about 400 for each prison. But in the past 25 years, the population of this nation has doubled and will increase rapidly, so that in prison construction the future demands must be considered.

If these prisons are constructed, we may well consider the experience of other nations, not only in adaptation, but in economy. It is doubtful whether a more interesting precedent can be quoted than that of the great prison of Wormwood Scrubs, near London. It has 1,400 cells for 1,400 prisoners, and for the purpose, is well adapted and is an institution of the first order. Its economy comes from the fact that it was built by convict labor. About 600 were employed. The average cost per cell in other prisons has been about $700. The cost per cell of Wormwood Scrubs was about $200.

The first step was to construct a high temporary inclosure of planks. In this the prisoners labored under guards. This English experience might be of value in America.

By the bill referred to, the Attorney-General and the Secretary of the Interior are to select locations for the three prisons and supervise their erection. The management of the prisons is to be vested in the Attorney-General, who shall appoint the superintendent and other officers and who shall establish rules for the government of the prisons. The act is not to apply to such minors, as, in the opinion of the Judge, should be committed to reformatories. Good conduct is to shorten the term of imprisonment, but not to exceed two months in each year. Convicts under 20 years of age are to be kept separate from others, and their treatment is to be reformatory. The prisoners are not to be worked outside the prison inclosure and they are to be employed exclusively in the manufacture of Government supplies. There are other operating provisions.

With the enactment of this measure, this Government will have inaugurated a prison system of its own which may furnish a model to the States in prison construction, discipline, and management. When the Pennsylvania and Auburn systems were adopted this country was in advance of Europe in prison construction. These systems were adopted in Europe, and have been generally commended, but within the past few years, under the impetus given by the International Prison Congress, there have been marked advances in construction and management in Europe, and America must act if she continues in the advance.

The following resolutions were adopted by the board of directors of the National Prison Association, held in Nashville, in November, 1889:

Resolved, That it is the sense of the National Prison Association that the wholesome administration of justice, and the proper care of criminals and of the criminal classes in the States and nation, demand that the Congress of the United States at an early date create and establish a "Prison Bureau," under the Department of Justice, with sufficient appropriation to operate the same. Said bureau to collect, collate, and publish criminal and prison statistics and information from all sources, and to register all criminals by the Bertillian system of identification.

Whereas the Government of the United States is now compelled to confine its prisoners arrested, indicted, tried, convicted, and sentenced by the United States authorities, in the different State penitentiaries and reformatories throughout the country because it has no reliable prisons of its own and therefore no direct control over its own convicts: Therefore,

Be it resolved by the National Prison Association in congress assembled at Nashville, Tenn., That we do favorably commend for the action of the United States, prisons situated at convenient centers.* This association hereby pledges to the Department of Justice a hearty coöperation in every step taken to bring about this result.

There is one evil in the diversified prison systems of this country that substantially prevails in all; and that is political control. Generally when there is a change of parties in a State, there is a change also in the managers of State institutions, employés even as well as in boards of control. Each time there is a change, the experienced warden, superintendent, or employé must retire and the place is filled by a favorite of the appointing power. Each time there is a change, inexperience takes the place of experience, and the good management, discipline, and economy are put in peril and usually with loss to the State. When politics do not control State institutions; when every principle of prison discipline and prison reform is perfected; when all questions regarding prison reformation, labor, diet, and patronage are satisfactorily answered; when prison architecture, its forms and economy, are fully demonstrated and established; when the most certain way of saving dependent and abandoned children from vice, crime, and poverty has been fully determined, then America will need no prison reform; for then few, if any, prisons or prisoners will exist. The prison problem in America is by no means fully settled. The various experiments and experiences in the various States fully demonstrate this. Take, for instance, the question of the prison contract system and mark the variety of opinion regarding it in New York, the Empire State. In 1888 the contract system was abolished. The New York Tribune in January last said:

> At this age of the world in this imperial State, than which none is supposed to be more enlightened, it ought to have been impossible for so wretched a measure to have reached the statute book.

By it, the convicts were thrown out of employment, the death rate and the insanity rate reached the highest ever known. Besides this, there was great financial loss. The prisons, instead of being self-supporting as they have been, with a surplus on hand for some years, showed a deficit in 1888 of $153,924.46 and in 1889 of $369,274.25. In 1889, the act of 1888 was repealed and a system of labor for the State adopted, which, it is expected, will operate better.

Aside from the prevailing prison system of the South, the average method of dealing with pauperism and crime in this country is probably in advance of others. But when we consider that the ratio of the increase of pauperism and crime is greater than that of the population, that while some States are making great advance in solving the social

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* A law for this purpose has since been enacted by the Congress of 1890-'91.

questions others are making no successful endeavor in that direction, is it not well that the legislature should ponder well these things and seek to obtain a more perfected penal system, even in America? By the encouragement given the investigations in penitentiary science, by the General and State governments; by conferences between experienced and practical prison officials, in national and international conventions, and by the adoption of humane, reasonable, and economic methods our people should be, where destiny has placed them, always in the advance.

THE HISTORY OF PRISON CONGRESSES.

THE FIRST MOVEMENTS.

The present system of international prison congresses is of American origin and owes its existence to the late E. C. Wines, D. D., LL. D. The name of Dr. Wines is the symbol of prison reform and is familiar to social scientists in all civilized countries. His history is that of prison reform in this country and Europe for the past quarter of a century. What John Howard was in presenting the thrilling facts relative to prisons, Dr. Wines was in applying the principles of penitentiary science. It was he who conceived, planned, and carried out successfully the international prison congresses of London and Stockholm and made those of Rome and St. Petersburg possible and successful. While he attributed equal credit to others it is quite certain that those congresses would never have been held—that we would never have had the rich penitentiary literature they have afforded—had not our countryman, Dr. Wines, conceived and executed them. And these congresses being of American origin, there is more reason that our Government should continue its interest in them.

The first international prison congresses were mainly European, and the opening one was held in 1845 at Frankfort-on-the-Main. It consisted of eighty members. The United States, England, France, Italy, Prussia, and some other countries were represented. This congress adopted a resolution favoring cellular imprisonment, the revision of penal codes, and the establishment of patronage societies. The following year a second congress was held in Brussels at which over two hundred members were present. The session continued three days and the discussions were able and interesting. The conclusions of this congress gave evidence of advanced thought in penitentiary science and were as follows:

> That it is essential that houses of correctional education for young delinquents, on the system of temporary individual confinement, should be established, having also the privilege of placing the said young culprits in agricultural colonies with authority to bind them out to good, honest farmers and mechanics through patronage societies; that the interior service of prisons should be intrusted to agents well prepared for the discharge of their duties by a sort of apprenticeship or special training therefor; and that religious or philanthropic patronage societies should also give their help to reform the penitentiary system.

An international congress of philanthropy was held in Brussels in 1856, and doing no business adjourned to meet in Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1857. This congress was well attended from different countries. The proceedings formed two volumes. The conclusions adopted covered a wide field, favoring the cellular system for both short and long terms, even at first for young delinquents, the institution of farm colonies for old or invalid convicts, the abolishment of corporal punishment and public labor, uniform methods of prison management, the establishment of intermediate prisons between strict imprisonment and conditional discharge, the publication of prison reports, etc.

THE LONDON INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

After this congress there were formed local national associations, but there was no further effort in Europe for an international congress. The new movement came from the west, from America. It grew out of a correspondence between Count Sollohub, of Russia, and Dr. Wines. The count was "president of the commission for penitentiary reform in Russia," a government position. There is an extended outline of the Russian system prepared by the Count in the report of the London congress. The count suggested that the Prison Association of New York, of which Dr. Wines had long been secretary, should take the initiative in organizing an international congress. Dr. Wines submitted to that association the proposition of the count, but the association did not deem it expedient to act.

The friends of the movement did not, however, cease to promote it. As a preliminary measure to carry out the purpose there was held at Cincinnati a "national congress" for conference on criminal punishment and reformatory treatment, in the autumn of 1870. There were over two hundred delegates in attendance, representing nearly every State. The Hon. R. B. Hayes, then Governor and since President, was president of the convention. There were present heads of prisons and reformatories, members of their boards, members of prison societies and their officials, etc. The sessions continued a week. Thirty-eight papers were read and 37 declarations of principles were adopted. In its organization and successful management Dr. Wines was the ever-present moving power.

This convention took up the subject of an international prison congress and placed upon Dr. Wines the duty of organizing it. It was deemed best that the congress should have a national and governmental character, and to that end, that Congress should be invited to coöperate by affording material aid. Through the influence of Dr. Wines Congress passed a joint resolution authorizing the President to appoint a commissioner to represent the United States in the proposed international prison congress and made an appropriation for the purpose. Dr. Wines was appointed by President Grant to be such commissioner with the understanding that he should visit Europe a year in advance to

make due preparations and to enlist the various European governments in the enterprise. The Secretary of State also addressed a letter to the United States diplomatic and consular representatives, asking them to aid the commissioner in his work. By correspondence and personal interviews, representation was secured from all the governments of Europe except Portugal. Brazil, several South American republics, and a number of the American States sent delegates. The congress was called to be held in London in July, 1872. There were between 80 and 100 official delegates and among them were many noted specialists in penitentiary science. There were also a large number of delegates from prison societies, jurists, and heads of penal and reformatory institutions; the Institute of France was also represented. There were in all about 400 members of the Congress. It was a remarkable gathering. Lord Carnarvon was president of the congress and the Prince of Wales was present. The British secretary of state for the home department delivered the address of welcome. The official report is contained in an octavo volume of 800 pages, forming a contribution to prison literature unique, able, and interesting.

The Right Hon. Austin H. Bruce, M. P., Her Majesty's secretary of state for the home department, attended the congress and gave an official welcome to the members. In the course of his address he said:

> It is a great satisfaction to me that it has not been any increase of crime in this country that led the congress to assemble here, and I hope that the delegates from abroad will be able to give an account of such diminution of crime in their countries as has been experienced in this. It is to me not only a matter of congratulation, but of deep thankfulness, that in the face of many apparent reasons for a contrary condition of things, there has been of late years, in this country, an extraordinary diminution of serious crime. The system of transportation of our criminals to other countries has now entirely ceased, and it might have been expected that the prisoners, who since that cessation of transportation have been turned loose in this country, would return to their old associations. But instead of there being an increase, there has not only been a decrease of crime relatively to the increased population, but a decrease in all the graver classes of crime. * * * The efforts of those who have instituted industrial schools, reformatories, penitentiaries, discharged prisoners' aid societies, and similar institutions of that character, have prevented the relapse of a vast number of criminals; and the diffusion of knowledge among the people and the spread of education have enabled people to distribute themselves over the world, and to avoid, to some degree, the conditions leading to crime. All these influences have doubtless much to do with the diminution of crime, which is always found to be most frequent in overpopulated districts. * * * I desire to give the delegates every facility for becoming thoroughly acquainted with the English system of prisons, and I trust that the able and distinguished gentlemen who have honored this country with their presence will visit the convict establishments and thoroughly examine the system, and will fearlessly and openly express their opinion upon it. The government desires not panegyric, but intelligent criticism, so that the system may be brought to the highest possible point of improvement. I desire to convey to the members of the congress the thanks of the government and my high appreciation of their coming to England and the spirit in which they have undertaken their task.

The address of the president of the congress, the Right Hon. the Earl of Carnarvon, was of considerable length, outlining the purposes of the

congress as well as the condition of the penal and reformatory institutions of the country. In speaking of the character and objects of the congress he said:

> Its object is to gather information, to compare the different prison systems of different countries, to discuss the principles and details on which these systems are based, and to arrive, if possible, at some general conclusions. Its history is the history of a remarkable agreement by the peoples and governments of many civilized countries on a subject which they have justly considered important. * * * Almost every European state has given its support. France, though embarrassed by a hundred domestic difficulties, has found time to further our objects; Italy, not unmindful of her great jurists and writers on criminal reform, takes part; Belgium has accredited one of her most distinguished statesmen to the congress; Holland, with that sound sense which we delight to believe is a common quality of her people and ours, is interested in our objects; Switzerland, Denmark, all-inquiring, all-embracing Germany, lastly the United States, which by numerous experiments have contributed so much to the common stock of our knowledge, drawing with them from the other side of the Atlantic the South American States, have all appointed envoys and have accepted England as the place of meeting and discussion. * * * In approaching the subject of our future discussions I shall not, I hope, be out of place if I offer from this chair to the many and distinguished guests whom we are happy to see among us our heartiest welcome.

The president stated that the order of business would be:

First. Criminal law procedure and preventive police.

Second. The punishment of the criminal.

Third. His treatment when discharged.

In other words, the course to be pursued towards the criminal before, during, and after his committal to prison—a wide inquiry, and one from which diverge in no illogical connection many tempting by-paths and curious speculations.

Among the many interesting papers were the following by American writers: The Penal and Reformatory System of Maryland, by G. S. Griffith; The Prevention of Juvenile Crime in Large Cities, by Rev. C. L. Brace; Crimes of Passion and Crimes of Reflection, by J. B. Bittinger, D. D.; Prisoners and their Reformation, by Z. R. Brockway; John Howard, His Life and Character, by Rev. H. W. Bellows, D. D.

The questions discussed at the London congress were as follows:

1. What ought to be the maximum number of prisoners or convicts detained in any prison?

2. Ought classification of prisoners according to character to be considered as the principal basis of any penitentiary system?

3. Should the prison system be regulated by legislation?

4. Ought corporal punishment to be admitted in the disciplinary code of a penitentiary system?

5. What should be the kind and limit of instruction for reformatory treatment applied to convicts?

6. Ought training schools for prison officers to be formed, and for what class of officers?

7. Ought transportation to be admitted as a punishment? If so, what ought to be its nature?

8. Ought imprisonment to be uniform, differing only in length, or ought several kinds differing in denomination and discipline to be admitted? In the latter case what kinds are to be admitted?

9. Ought imprisonment, without labor and without contact with other prisoners, to be admitted for special crimes not implying great perversity?

10. Is it possible to replace short imprisonments and the nonpayment of fines by forced labor, without privation of liberty?

11. Ought any kind of imprisonment to be imposed for the time of natural life?

12. What is the best mode of giving remission of sentences and regulating conditional discharges?

13. Is the supervision of discharged prisoners desirable? If so, what are the most efficient means of accomplishing it?

14. Ought prisoners on reconviction to be subjected to more severe disciplinary treatment than on their first sentence?

15. Should prison labor be merely penal, or should it be industrial?

16. How far should the visiting justices or boards of prison managers control the administration of prisons?

17. Ought the government of prisons to be placed wholly in the hands of one central authority?

18. What is the treatment likely to be the most effective for the reformation of juvenile offenders?

19. Is it desirable to establish international penitentiary statistics? And, if so, how may this be accomplished?

20. What is the best mode of giving aid to discharged prisoners?

21. What is the best means of securing the rehabilitation of prisoners?

22. What are the best means of repressing criminal capitalists?

23. Ought penitentiary systems to exclude all kinds of corporal punishment?

24. What ought to be the maximum of imprisonment, cellular or otherwise, for terms less than life?

25. What ought to be the treatment of prisoners before conviction?

26. Is it in the interest of the prevention and repression of crime that treaties of extradition should be concluded between civilized nations?

27. In addition to the above, penitentiary systems were discussed on the report of M. Victor Bounat, the distinguished specialist and author. The penitentiary systems of Great Britain, India, and the United States, women's work in prison, and aid to prisoners in Holland were discussed.

The general management of the London congress was in the hands of an executive international committee of nineteen, representing as

many different nations, of which Mr. G. W. Hastings, of England, was chairman. This committee made a unanimous report through the chairman. Part of this report is given below, as it throws much light on the object of these prison congresses and indicates the unity of views of representatives of various countries on some of the leading questions in penitentiary science:

The international committee congratulates the members of the congress on the success which has attended this first effort to bring together representatives from the various countries of the world for the collection of information and for the discussion of questions relating to prison discipline. * * * The committee did not think it advisable that votes should be taken on matters of opinion which were discussed in the sections. * * * But it had from the first resolved that it would endeavor to formulate in this report the prevalent views enunciated in the congress, to express the spirit of the meeting, not on matters of detail, but as to some of the leading principles which lie at the root of a sound prison discipline, and which must animate any system, whatever its nature, which is effective for the reformation of the prisoner and the consequent repression of crime.

Recognizing as the fundamental fact that the protection of society is the object for which penal codes exist and the treatment of criminals is devised, the committee believes that this protection is not only consistent with, but absolutely demands the enunciation of the principle that the moral regeneration of the prisoner should be the primary aim of prison discipline. To attain this aim, hope must always be a more powerful agent than fear; and hope should therefore be constantly sustained in the minds of prisoners by a system of rewards for good conduct and industry, whether in the shape of diminution of sentence, a participation in earnings, a gradual withdrawal of restraint, or an enlargement of privilege. A progressive classification of prisoners should, in the opinion of the committee, be adopted in all prisons.

In the treatment of criminals all disciplinary punishments that inflict unnecessary pain or humiliation should be abolished; and the penalties for prison offenses should, so far as possible, be the diminution of ordinary comforts, the forfeiture of some privilege, or a part of the progress made towards liberation. Moral forces and motives should in fact be relied on, so far as consistent with the due maintenance of discipline; and physical force should be employed only in the last extremity. But in saying this the committee is not advocating unsuitable indulgence, which it believes to be as pernicious as undue severity. The true principle is to place the prisoner, who must be taught that he has sinned against society and owes reparation, in a position of stern adversity, from which he must work his own way out by his own exertions. To impel a prisoner to this self-exertion should be the aim of a system of prison discipline, which can never be truly reformatory, unless it succeeds in gaining the good will of the convict. Prisoners do not cease to be men when they enter the prison walls, and they are still swayed by human motives and interests. They must therefore be dealt with as men—that is as beings who possess moral and spiritual impulses as well as bodily wants.

Of all reformatory agencies religion is the most important, because it is the most powerful in its action upon the human heart and life. Education has also a vital effect on moral improvement and should constitute an integral part of any prison system. Steady, active, and useful labor is the basis of sound discipline, and at once the means and test of reformation. Work, education, and religion are consequently the three great forces on which prison administration should rely. But to carry out these principles individualization becomes essential; prisoners, like other men, must be treated personally, and with a view to the peculiar circumstances and mental organization of each. The committee need not say that to carry out such views prison officers are required who believe in the capacity of prisoners for reformation, and who enter heartily into that work. They should, as far as possible, receive a special

training for their duties, and should be organized in such a gradation of rank, responsibility, and emolument as may retain experience and efficiency in the service and lead to the promotion of the most deserving.

But if a sound system of prison discipline be desirable, it is no less expedient that the prisoner, on his discharge, should be systematically aided to obtain employment and to return permanently to the ranks of honest and productive industry. For this purpose a more comprehensive system than has yet been brought to bear seems to be desirable.

Nor can the committee omit to say that it is in the field of preventive agencies, such as general education, the establishment of industrial and ragged schools, and other institutions designed to save children not yet criminal but in danger of becoming so, that the battle against crime is, in a great degree, to be won. In this, as in the general question of the reclamation of the guilty and erring, the influence of women devoted to such work is of the highest importance, and the committee rejoices that this congress has had the advantage of the presence and counsel of many ladies whose practical acquaintance with prisons and reformatories has given weight to their words and whose example furnishes hope for the future.

Lastly, the committee is convinced that the systems of criminal statistics now in force stand in urgent need of revision. Greater uniformity should be secured and means taken to insure a higher standard of accuracy and trustworthiness in this branch of the statistics of the different countries.

For this purpose the committee has appointed Dr. Wines (chairman), M. Beltrani-Scalia (secretary), Dr. Frey, Dr. Guillaume, G. W. Hastings, Esq., Baron von Holtzendorff, M. Loyenson, M. Pols, Count Sollohub, and Mr. Stevens an international committee to communicate with the various governments and to draw up a uniform scheme of action.

Several speeches were made in support of the report, and among the speakers was the venerable and talented Miss Mary Carpenter, of international reputation, who said:

> It is impossible to comprehend the very great importance of this congress. It inaugurated absolutely a new era in the history of civilization, and acknowledged that those who had hitherto been excluded from society were to be regarded a part of society and to be restored to it.

The words of the committee will have more force when it is remembered that the report was unanimously adopted by the delegates representing Austria, Baden, Bavaria, Belgium, Brazil, Chili, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Holland, Italy, Mexico, Norway, Prussia, Russia, Saxony, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United States of America.

This congress created a permanent international penitentiary commission with Dr. E. C. Wines as president, and Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, of Italy, secretary, and eight other members. This committee, as appears by an account of a subsequent meeting in Bruschal, was composed of Dr. Wines, president; Mr. Beltrani-Scalia; Almquist, of Sweden; Brum, of Denmark; Ekert, of Germany; Walli, of Baden; Dr. Guillaume, of Switzerland; Baron von Holtzendorff, of Bavaria; Loyenson and Petersen, of France; Pols, of Holland; Count Sollohub, of Russia; Mr. Stevens, of Belgium; Dr. Frey, of Austria, and Mr. Hastings, of England.

It is claimed that the London congress had a marked influence and was soon followed by improvements in prison reform in various countries. Between the holding of the London and Stockholm congresses, Germany adopted a new penal code, and prison reform was earnestly studied throughout the empire. In Holland the cellular system made progress. Belgium steadily pursued the establishment of the cellular régime in her prisons. In England additional prisoners' aid societies were established, a deeper interest in penitentiary questions was aroused, and a sensible diminution of crime was noticeable. Prison reform advanced in Switzerland. Some cantons adopted new penal codes. The progressive system of imprisonment was adopted in some cantons. In Italy three agricultural penitentiary colonies were established, and a training school for prison officers was opened in Rome. Denmark adopted the progressive system of imprisonment. In Sweden a normal school for educating prison officers was established in connection with the prison at Langhölem, near Stockholm, and an agricultural colony was founded after the pattern of that at Mettray. These and other movements in Europe and America of the same kind may be directly traced to the influence of the London congress. Above all, by its papers and discussions, published and circulated throughout the world, it has had and continues to have a great influence in directing prison reform and in educating public opinion. This congress demonstrated by its discussions and by the presence and labors of its distinguished members that the true aim of prison reform was not to excuse crime or indulge criminals, but to establish methods by which crime and criminals can be reduced and the great burdens they entail on society can be lessened.

THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS IN STOCKHOLM.

The International Penitentiary Commission appointed Stockholm as the place for the next congress to be held in 1878, and named Dr. Wines as its honorary president. The following correspondence touching the selection of Stockholm will be read with interest:

GRAND HOTEL,
Stockholm, September 4, 1875.

His Majesty OSCAR II,
King of Sweden and Norway:

SIRE: If I venture to address myself directly to your Majesty, it is because I have long known of the warm sympathy and active labors of your illustrious father, Oscar I, in the cause of prison reform, and, more recently, your Majesty's personal interest in the same great problem, a problem worthy to engage the study of rulers and statesmen as well as of philanthropists and Christians.

The published works and personal efforts of the late King Oscar I, which are well known and highly appreciated in my country, are not among the least effective agencies which have given of late so strong an impulse to prison reform, not only in Sweden but throughout the civilized world. Among the qualities and achievements which have given to your Majesty's august father a title to the remembrance and gratitude of posterity, few hold a higher place than the labors to which reference has just been made.

As president of the International Penitentiary Commission created by the congress in London in 1872, I have been instructed to confer with the Swedish Government, and especially with your Majesty as the head of the Government, with reference to holding the next international congress at the capital of Sweden. The commission was moved to make choice of this country for the approaching congress by several considerations: First, because they knew the profound interest taken formerly by your Majesty's illustrious father, and now by your Majesty, in the questions which the congress will be called together to consider; second, because they felt assured that the penitentiary institutions of Sweden are already well advanced, and that the Swedish Government is earnestly studying the penitentiary question, and is intent upon wise and solid reforms; and third, because they were persuaded, not only that the Government and people of Sweden and Norway would be in hearty sympathy with the objects and labors of the congress, but that there would be inspiration in the very air of the country where successive sovereigns have been so conspicuous and so active in the study and promotion of prison discipline and reform.

Under the instructions given by my colleagues and for the reason briefly stated above, I venture to ask that your Majesty and your Majesty's Government will consent to receive into your splendid capital and country the second International Congress for the study of penitentiary reform, which has been definitely fixed for 1877. [Changed to 1878.]

I have the honor to be, with profound respect, your Majesty's most obedient servant,

E. C. WINES,

President of the International Penitentiary Commission and Commissioner of the United States to the International Prison Congress.

To this communication the following answer was returned:

STOCKHOLM, *September* 14, 1875.

E. C. WINES, Esq.:

I am directed by his Majesty the King to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 4th instant, and to inform you that it affords his Majesty great satisfaction to learn that the International Penitentiary Commission has selected Stockholm for the holding of the next prison congress in 1877. His Majesty, who takes great interest in the success of the generous undertaking to which the commission has devoted itself, is pleased to assure you that the Swedish and Norwegian Governments will use their best endeavors to facilitate the labors of the congress, by opening to them all available sources of information.

I avail myself of this opportunity to assure you, sir, of my distinguished consideration.

O. W. BJÖRNTSJERNA,

Minister of Foreign Affairs.

This correspondence recalls the invitation also extended in the National Prison Congress held in New York, in 1876, by Mr. Meijerberg, of the Royal Commission of Sweden to the International Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia, to the members of the convention. Among other things he said:

Mr. PRESIDENT: It is known that there is to be an international prison reform congress in Stockholm one year from next August. I can, on behalf of my countrymen, assure you a hearty welcome. Certainly it is a long voyage to Sweden, but it is the saying of one of our famous old Swedish poets that—

"Short is the way to a friend, albeit he dwells afar." * * *

I can assure you that our popular and high-minded King, with every cultivated man in Sweden, wishes to see there as many good citizens of the United States of America as possible. You will not have much to learn in our country. What we

have to show you is, how a people in the mountains, under the drawback of a hard climate, after perpetual wars during three centuries, are endeavoring to conquer with the plow and the spade what they have lost by the sword. I said it is a hard climate, but it is not so cold in Sweden as you would imagine when you know that Sweden is situated in the same latitude as Labrador and Greenland. The reason is, that the warm Gulf Stream washes the coast of Scandinavia, and as that is the case in the physical world, so it is in the moral world, for many warm streams of thought and ideas have flowed to us from the New World. Through you we have learned political and religious freedom. From you we have taken that system of humanity in the treatment of prisoners, which is called the Pennsylvania system, introduced in our country many years ago by our present King's father, who wrote a book on that subject. * * * In conclusion, I thank you for what I have seen and learned here, and once more assure you that you will receive next summer a hearty welcome on your visit to the country of Gustavus Adolphus and Linnæus.

The learned gentleman addressed the convention in English, and was warmly applauded.

The International Penitentiary Commission made due arrangements for the Stockholm Congress. In determining the line of work, it avoided in the programme, as far as possible, speculative and theoretical discussions. The programme contained a number of practical questions of general interest, and reporters were appointed in various countries to submit written papers thereon, to be published and submitted at the opening of the congress. In the meeting of the commission in Paris, in June, 1878, reporters were appointed on all the questions of the programme to open and close the discussions. At this meeting Dr. Guillaume, of Switzerland, was made secretary-general of the congress. He presented the regulations for the International Commission which he and Mr. Holtzendorff had elaborated. It was also decided that the members of the commission and other official delegates should meet in Stockholm before the opening of the congress to take any final measures necessary, and especially to discuss the proposed regulations.

The Government of Sweden made various arrangements for the meeting of the congress, which was finally fixed for August 20, 1878. The Government also sent to all other states the invitation to send representatives to the congress, and appointed a local committee to take necessary steps for its reception.

To meet the expenses of this reunion the Government appropriated 20,000 crowns—something over $5,000.

In conformity to previous arrangement, the members of the commission and official delegates met at Stockholm, August 15. The sessions of the commission from August 15 to 29 were interesting, but space can not be given here for even an outline. The regulations which appear elsewhere herein were adopted at that time. At these meetings it was announced by M. Almquist, inspector-general of Swedish prisons, that the Government had placed the Palace of the Nobility at the disposition of the congress for its sessions, and had appointed the Palace of the Diet for the meetings of the local committee; that some young

gentlemen acquainted with modern languages had been engaged by the local committee to act as secretaries; that an industrial exposition had been organized at the women's prison at Normalm, and that to facilitate friendly relations between members of the congress, the halls of the Hotel Rydberg had been chosen for social evening meetings. He further announced that the city of Stockholm would tender a banquet to the foreign members, August 22; that the King, who was then in Norway, would return August 24 to give at the Chateau of Drottningholm a festival to the members of the congress, and that it was very probable that the King would then attend the session of the congress and would, if desired, give audience to members; that at the close of the congress the Swedish members would tender a farewell banquet at the Grand Hotel. In closing his announcement M. Almquist said:

> On behalf of the local committee and of Sweden, I extend to you a cordial welcome, and desire that you will have no reason to regret your long voyage and all the troubles you have undergone in coming here.

This high official and distinguished specialist has been dead some years, to the great loss of his country and social science.

The following table is of special interest, showing the sums contributed by various governments for the expenses of the congress and commission. It was presented by the secretary.

	Population.	Subscription.
		Francs.
Germany	41,010,150	1,025
Austria	20,136,283	503
Hungary	15,508,575	388
Belgium	5,253,821	131
Denmark	2,000,000	50
Spain	24,236,490	606
United States	38,925,598	973
France	40,943,120	1,024
Italy	26,801,154	670
Norway	1,795,000	45
Netherlands	4,000,000	100
Portugal	5,400,000	135
Argentine Republic	2,000,000	50
Russia	76,500,000	1,912
Sweden	4,341,559	109
Switzerland	2,669,147	67

OPENING OF THE CONGRESS.

The Stockholm Congress opened August 22, 1878, in the palace of the Order of the Nobility.

His excellency de Björnstjerna, minister of state and of foreign affairs, opened the congress by the following address:

> GENTLEMEN: In the name of the King and of the Government, I can also say in the name of my countrymen, I take pleasure in welcoming you to our country, which you have honored in choosing as the place for the meeting of your congress. I believe I am not deceived in seeing in this choice a mark of sympathy for our nation and a tribute to our enlightened and well-beloved sovereign and to the memory of his august father, the crowned author, who was a constant and zealous promoter of

prison reform. The eagerness with which all governments have responded to the invitation to be represented here is a happy proof of the interest they attach to your work, and the choice of their delegates offers the best guaranty that your work will not be unfruitful. We feared that the distance of Stockholm was a serious obstacle to the meeting of the congress, but the numerous and distinguished assembly which has responded to the appeal proves that our fears were superfluous and that the difficulties would not stop you in the pursuit of a work useful to the cause of progress and humanity. A wise limitation in your regulations has prevented the inconvenience of a great number by requiring special qualifications for admission. Thus constituted, thanks to the light and experience you bring, the Second Congress is destined, without doubt, to lead with practical and beneficial results.

Unfortunately, notwithstanding all our efforts, crime will always exist, until human nature is changed. May you teach us how to combat and lessen its frequency, the method of directing in the right way the dependent children, and to restore to society, as useful members, those unfortunates who habitually relapse into crime after discharge from prison; and you have accomplished a noble task.

In presenting these views, I have the honor to declare opened the Second International Prison Congress.

On the conclusion of the address his excellency Mr. de Grot, private councilor, member of the council of the empire, secretary of state, and president of the commission for the reorganization of the prisons of Russia, moved that his excellency O. W. Björnstjerna be the president, and Dr. Wines, honorary president of the congress, which was adopted with applause. The organization was completed by the appointment of Messrs. Almquist, De Grot, and Thorrissen vice-presidents, Dr. Guillaume, secretary-general, and Messrs. Hj. af Petersons, O. de Printzsköld, and J. H. Kramer secretaries of divisions.

Following this was a lengthy, carefully drafted, and able address by Dr. Wines, mainly upon the progress in prison reform since the London Congress. A few of his opening words may be of interest, showing, as they do, the general situation:

The Second International Penitentiary Congress meets under circumstances the most auspicious as regards time, place, preparation and representation.

As regards time, because the peace of Europe, so long threatened by the angry cloud of war, has, by the wisdom of her representative statesmen, recently assembled in congress in Berlin, been assured; so that the nations may now lay aside the instruments of destruction, and give themselves to the use only of those which are employed in multiplying and intensifying the forces of civilization; in creating, building and perfecting the arts of life and social progress.

As regards the place, because we meet in a country where successive sovereigns have given the penitentiary question a generous and an earnest study, one of whom, Oscar I, of happy memory—father of the illustrious monarch who now fills the throne, and who is therefore by inheritence as well as by conviction the friend of prison reform—having nearly a century ago published a book on prisons and punishments, which has contributed not a little to the progress of such reform; a country where the interest of the sovereigns has been warmly responded to by the people; so that now Sweden is able to offer to the Congress establishments both penal and preventive worthy of its careful examination and study.

As regards preparation, because, as is believed, no international reunion of any kind has ever taken place for whose labors more thorough preparations have been made, since these preparations have covered a period of four years, and have been conducted under the guidance of representative men from the larger part of the countries which took part in the congress of London in 1872.

As regards representation, because the delegates, official and non-official, now assembled in this œcumenical penitentiary council of Stockholm, and the reports from the governments not so represented here, come from regions as broad and points as distant, if not indeed broader and more distant, than the members of any œcumenical council ever summoned by papal authority. It is no exaggeration to say that the immense stretches of island and continent, from Japan, New Zealand, and Australia in the east, to the Hawaiian or Sandwich Islands in the west, and from Nova Scotia and Iceland in the north, to Cape Horn and the Cape of Good Hope in the south, are to-day, by living delegates or by official reports, or by both, in Stockholm, fitly named the Venice of the North.

It is difficult to pause here and not transfer this address entire. However, the proceedings occupy two large royol octavo volumes, where the reader must learn more fully what was said and done at Stockholm. These proceedings have appeared only in the French language, which was the official language of the congresses of Stockholm, Rome, and St. Petersburg. Our Government would confer a lasting benefit to the cause of prison reform in this country by the translation and publication of the papers and discussions of these congresses. There is already a very extensive French literature on penology besides the reports of the congresses. The monthly bulletin of the "Société Générale des Prisons," which has been published since 1877 at 26 Place due Marché St. Honoré, Paris, by its able editor M. Fernand Desportes, secretary-general of the society, is an encyclopedia of the science of penology. At the monthly meetings of the society there are discussions on the various departments of penitentiary science, prison discipline, architecture, diet, labor, as well as patronage; and, above all, preventive measures, by which crime and pauperism are to be reduced, are very fully considered. The members of this organization are a guaranty of its high character. To these discussions as members come senators from the Senate of France, deputies from the Chamber of Deputies, advocates from the courts, high officials charged with the management of the prisons of France, superintendents or managers of reformatory and charitable institutions, and members of the noted Institute of France, distinguished as authors or philosophers. It would be a rare sight to witness in America such men engaged in the discussion of prison reform. The bulletin now forms twelve large volumes of the proceedings and contributed papers. In the French Senate the report of Senator Roussel fills a quarto volume of about 1,000 pages devoted to the question of dependent and ill-treated children. The works of Victor Bournat and Viscount de Haussonville on dependent, abandoned, and illtreated children are of great value. In these works the penologist might get wisdom and inspiration, did his knowledge of French open these sources to him. These journals and works in penology published in English and distributed among prison officials and legislators in this country would be of inestimable value. In the discussions of the various questions in the programme the congress was divided into three sections; besides this was the Scandinavian section; all of which held several sessions.

The American papers or addresses were as follows:

1. Prisoners' Aid Society of Maryland, by G. S. Griffith, president of the society.

2. The Michigan State Public School for Dependent Children, by C. D. Randall, secretary and treasurer of the institution and resident member of the board of control at Coldwater, Mich.

3. Intemperance the source of Poverty, Vice, and Crime, memoir presented by the Woman's Temperance Society of the United States; a very able paper.

4. Reform Establishments for Young Delinquents, by Col. F. B. Sanborn, secretary of the American Social Science Society, Concord, Mass.

5. Report on the Prison System of Maine, by W. W. Riel, superintendent of the State prison of Maine.

6. The Pennsylvania System, by Dr. Morrell, delegate from that State.

7. Vermont Prisons, by G. G. Benedict.

After a lengthy discussion on the several sections of the questions, there was a vote taken on propositions and a report made thereon to the general sessions. In these general sessions the reports were read and a vote was again taken. In this way certain conclusions were reached, some having a greater majority than others.

The programme of the Stockholm congress was brief, compared with that of London or Rome. It was as follows:

PROGRAMME.

First section.

1. To what extent should the mode of administering punishment be defined by law? Should the administration of prisons have discretionary power in this respect when the prescribed regulations would be inapplicable?

2. Would it be practicable to maintain various classes of imprisonment, or to adopt a legal assimilation of all punishments, without any difference except duration and the accessory consequences involved after liberation?

3. What are the conditions by which transportation can be useful in the administration of the penal law?

4. What should be the authority of an inspector-general of prisons? Should this general inspection extend to all prisons, even to private institutions for young delinquents?

Second section.

1. What system should be adopted for national penitentiary statistics?

2. Would it be considered useful for the success of prison administration to establish normal schools for educating prison officers? What has experience taught in this respect?

3. What disciplinary punishments may be permitted in prisons?

4. Examine the question of conditional liberation, not considering the Irish system.

5. Should the cellular system undergo any modifications according to nationality, sex, or social condition of the prisoner?

6. Should the duration of solitary confinement be determined by law? Should the administration of prisons make exceptions except in case of sickness?

Third section.

1. Should patronage or prisoners' aid societies be established, and how? Should there be a distinct society for each sex?

2. Should the state bear the expenses of patronage societies, and under what conditions?

3. According to what principles should institutions be organized for young delinquents acting without discernment and placed in charge of public authority?

4. Also, how should such institutions be organized for vagrant, mendicant, or abandoned children?

5. By what means can there be obtained a unity of action between the police of different states to facilitate and insure the repression of crime?

After the discussions in the sections, and again in the general assembly, the following resolutions were adopted by the congress:

RESOLUTIONS.

1. Without impairing uniformity in the mode of imprisonment, the administration of prisons should have discretionary power, within limits presented by law, to apply punishments as far as possible to secure the reformation of the condemned.

2. Reserving inferior and special punishments for certain light offenses which do not indicate depravity, it is practicable, whatever may be the prison rule, to adopt as far as possible a similarity of imprisonment, differing only in the duration and in the consequences after liberation.

3. Transportation presents difficulties of execution which do not permit it to be adopted in every country, nor does it allow us to hope that it will realize all the conditions of justice.

4. It is not only useful but necessary that the state should have a central authority which should direct and supervise all prisons without exception, as well as all establishments for young delinquents.

5. International penitentiary statistics should be continued in accordance with the system adopted in 1872. The choice of formulas and the details of execution are left with the international penitentiary commission, with the reservation that all statistical information should be preceded or accompanied by explanations. The preparation of the annual international statistics should be severally confided to the prison administrations of each country represented.

6. The congress is of the opinion that prison officers before entering upon their duties should receive a theoretical and practical education. It also considers it essential that there should be sufficient compensation to secure and retain competent officers.

7. In penitentiaries the following disciplinary punishments may be allowed:

(1) Reprimand.

(2) Partial or total deprivation of compensation allowed.

(3) A more strict imprisonment. This punishment may be increased to an extent not affecting the health and in keeping with the character of the prisoner, such as removing the table, chair, or bed from the cell, darkening the cell or depriving him of reading or work.

(4) If the punishments above enumerated are not sufficient, there may be reduction of the food each day along with deprivation of labor if the health or condition of the prisoner admits.

(5) In case of grave violence and rage on the part of the prisoner, the straight-jacket or similar means may be employed.

As to the prisoners awaiting trial, the director should only have the right to use the necessary means to secure detention and to repress all excess.

8. Conditional liberation not being contrary to the principles of penal law and presenting advantages to both society and the condemned, should be commended to the consideration of governments and should be protected by guaranties.

9. In countries where the cellular system is in operation it can be applied without distinction of race, social position, or sex, except in case of special conditions of race or social position. There is no reservation except in the case of juvenile delinquents. If the cellular régime is extended to them it should be in a manner not to injure their moral or physical development.

10. Whatever penitentiary system is adopted, if it allows individual isolation the duration should be determined by law definitely if a pure cellular régime is in question or in the limits of a stated maximum. Where cellular imprisonment is in force the law should authorize the administration of prisons, under certain guaranties, to make exceptions when the condition of the prisoner is such that his life or reason might be affected by long detention in the cell.

11. The congress being convinced that the patronage of adult discharged convicts is the indispensable complement of reform prison discipline, taking into account the results obtained since the last congress, is of the opinion:

(1) That patronage societies should generally be conducted by private charity coöperating with the State but avoiding an official character.

(2) The congress is of the opinion that patronage should be extended to those discharged prisoners who have given during their detention evidence of their reformation, certified by the prison administration or by visitors appointed by patronage societies.

(3) The congress considers it practicable that distinct patronage societies be organized for discharged women and that they be confined, as far as possible, to that sex.

12. In considering the condition of minors acquitted as having acted without discernment and of vagrant, mendicant, and vicious children in general, we should, above all, be inspired with the principle that it is not the aim so much to administer punishment as it is to provide an education to enable these children to gain an honest living and to be useful to society.

(1) The best education is one that is given in a respectable family. In the second place, in default of a family which guaranties a good

education and would execute the trust, recourse should be had to public or private institutions.

(2) These establishments should be based on religion, work, and education.

(3) The question whether these institutions should be on the cottage plan in imitation of the family or on the congregate, receiving all the children in one large building, may be decided according to circumstances. In either case the number in one establishment should be limited so that the superintendent or other manager can have personal knowledge of each.

(4) Children belonging to different faiths should be separated as much as can be. The separating of the sexes and different ages is desirable for children over 10 years of age. If the circumstances do not permit placing the children of different ages and sexes in different institutions, they should at least be separated in the institution when received.

(5) The education in institutions should correspond to the conditions in which the working classes live and on the same basis as the elementary schools. The greatest simplicity in diet, clothing, and lodging should be provided, and, above all, labor should be furnished.

(6) Work should be organized so that children from the country as well as those from the city may find means to fit themselves for the future for which they are destined. If practicable, different establishments should be organized to meet this double want, and if not, they should be provided in the same establishments.

(7) Girls should receive in institutions an education which should, above all things, teach them housekeeping.

(8) The placing of vicious children in families or institutions should be so as to avoid, as much as possible, legal interference and by means of orders by the court to prevent the child from being withdrawn before the completion of his education, or against the will of the family or direction of the institution. The congress commends every effort made in this direction by certain legislation, substituting guardianship for judicial intervention.

(9) The duration in establishments might be extended to the age of 18 years. Liberation before this time might be revoked for misconduct.

(10) The administration of institutions should watch over children on their discharge, to provide a home for them in a respectable family as farm hands, domestics, servants, apprentices, assistants of foremen, or established in some other way.

(11.) The control of all institutions should be reserved to public authority.

13. To prevent crimes and to hasten and insure their repression it is desirable that there should be an understanding between the governments of the different countries. This understanding should, in the

first place, enter into treaties of extradition, which should be revised and rendered more uniform, and into the methods which should be recognized as the most practical to facilitate the execution of the provisions contained in the treaties and to establish more intimate relations between the police administrations of the different States.

14. The congress is of the opinion that the most efficient way to prevent relapse into crime is by a reformatory prison system, together with conditional liberation and the less frequent application of short imprisonments for habitual criminals. It also considers, on this subject, that if the legislation of the different countries would indicate in a sufficiently precise manner the increase of penalties encountered in case of recidivists the relapses would become less frequent.

The congress also values those institutions which are recognized as the complement of a prison system such as societies of patronage, workhouses, farm schools, or other aids as being effectually able to contribute to the desired end.

REGULATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL PENITENTIARY COMMISSION.

The following are the regulations of the International Penitentiary Commission, which were elaborated at Stockholm in 1877, adopted at the conference in Paris November 6, 1880, and confirmed at the conference in Rome in 1886.

ARTICLE 1. There is established an International Penitentiary Commission, whose duty shall be to collect documents and information relative to the prevention and repression of crime, and to prison management, for the purpose of informing governments upon general methods for preventing the violation of penal laws, and to secure the repression of crime by the reformation of criminals.

ART. 2. This commission shall be composed of delegates from different governments who will unite in the work above indicated. It will receive all communications, written or verbal, from those interested in the work in which the commission is engaged.

ART. 3. Each country can appoint one or more delegates. In the latter case, however, each government will have but one vote.

ART. 4. The commission will usually meet once in two years, successively in each of the countries which adhere to the regulations. It will fix and publish the date and place of its reunions.

ART. 5. It will name, at its regular reunion, its executive committee, composed of the president and a vice-president, who will be charged with the duties of treasurer and secretary.

ART. 6. The commission will publish in the French language, either in full or by abstract, in its bulletin:

First, laws and regulations relative to prisons which are enacted by different governments; second, projects of law on this subject, with reports which precede them; third, reports on the questions admitted to the programme of the International Prison Congresses; fourth, articles or original memoirs upon subjects kindred to the above, and which will be recognized to be of general interest. It will organize an international system of prison statistics.

ART. 7. In its reunions, the commission will discuss the questions submitted by the executive committee. Each member may submit to the committee questions for discussion. These questions should be addressed to the president at least 3 months before the reunion of the commission. Every discussion shall be recorded in the proceedings of the commission, with the names of the persons taking part.

ART. 8. After an understanding with the different governments the commission will fix the date and place of the International Prison Congresses, will prepare the programme, and will adopt, each time, the regulations for these reunions.

ART. 9. There will be an interval of at least 5 years between the congresses.

ART. 10. The commission will open correspondence with the prison societies existing in the different countries and seek to secure the creation of similar associations. It will also put itself in communication with persons who, on account of their special knowledge and their experience, can render service in this work.

ART. 11. To meet the expenses of the publication of the proceedings of the commission, of circulars, reports, inquiries, correspondence, etc., the commission allows each year to its officers the sum of 8,000 to 15,000 francs, which will be furnished by contributions of the states at the rate of 25 francs, the minimum, and 50 francs, the maximum, per million inhabitants. The delegates will deposit at each reunion in the hands of the member designated by the commission the contribution of the government they represent.

ART. 12. The executive committee will execute the order of the commission. It will convoke the reunion and fix the order of business in the intervals of the meetings of the commission and will charge itself with the management of the affairs.

ART. 13. It will consult the members of the commission by circulars whenever deemed necessary.

ART. 14. The Secretary will have charge of all correspondence, collecting the documents, and preserving the records.

ART. 15. All acts of the executive committee, circulars, and propositions shall have attached thereto the signatures of the president or vice-president and of the secretary.

ART. 16. The executive committee will present each year to the commission a report of its management, the budget estimates, and the accounts. These reports, as well as the proceedings of the sessions of the commission shall be sent to the governments interested.

The delegates from the United States were J. B. Brittinger, Pennsylvania; W. Bushnell, Ohio; J. L. Milligan, Pennsylvania; B. Stark, Connecticut; J. L. Stevens, United States minister; Mrs. M. A. Stone, Mrs. Henry R. Tonne, F. H. Wines, Mrs. Emma S. Wines, and Dr. E. C. Wines, the delegate of the United States Government.

BANQUETS IN HONOR OF THE STOCKHOLM CONGRESS.

A description of the banquets tendered in honor of the congress fill about 100 printed pages of the proceedings. A full translation would be found to be interesting, and would throw much light, by the addresses delivered, on the estimate of the government for the congress and the labors it was there to perform. But only some extracts can be given of the festival at the chateau of Drottningholm, to which the King invited the members August 24, at 6 o'clock p. m. This castle is situated on an island in Lake Mälar, about 6 miles from Stockholm. The journey was made on two steamboats, placed to the order of the congress. A number of high state officials went with the members. The evening was warm and most magnificent and the shores of the lake were very attractive. The city presented a most charming view from the Mälar. The center of the city appeared crowned by the imposing royal, rectangular residence, which is in remarkable contrast to the slender forms of

several monuments, the church of Riddarholm, and the sails of numerous vessels stationed in the port. Along the shores are forests, green fields, parks, medical and charitable establishments, and summer residences. After a while, numerous islands, large and small, appear on either side, covered with deep woods or cultivated fields, and now and then a hill crowned with a windmill, houses of infinite color, in wood or stone, and elegant villas of the Swedish gentry or the rich merchants of Stockholm, making a scene charming to the stranger and confirming his sentiment that this is the Venice of the North.

At 7 p. m. the imposing chateau of Drottningholm, the Versailles of Sweden, is reached. It was constructed in the seventeenth century, on the model of most princely residences. The guests, to the number of 500, immediately went to the chateau, where they were received in the name of the King by the grand chamberlain, in the great apartments of the second story. In the vestibule the band of the Royal Guards played a festive march. The King soon arrived and received the guests, who were presented to him in the "Gallery of the Princesses," a vast salon, decorated with the portraits of the queens living in the time of Oscar I. The King received all in the most cordial manner. The guests circulated in the splendid galleries of the palace, including the "Gallery of the Princesses." Everywhere appeared numerous art works, which excited the admiration of the visitors. The band continued to execute, from time to time, the best selections of its repertory.

At 9 o'clock the King, followed by the guests to the sound of a festive march, descended to the first floor, where supper was served on five different tables, the King inviting to his the members of the diplomatic corps, the high government officials, and the most prominent members of the congress.

After the bountiful repast addresses, toasts, and conversation followed. Some selections are given, showing the current of thought in prison reform, and the position of the subject with high officials and the members of the congress. The eminent Prussian penologist and government official, M. de Grot, appropriately and ably addressed the King first, and incidentally the congress.

His excellency M. de Grot proposed a toast to the king, and spoke as follows:

For a long time prison questions have occupied the attention of governments, philanthropists, and great thinkers; but the idea has only recently been conceived that in order to reduce crime it is absolutely necessary to adopt certain preventive measures, measures which, to secure substantial results, should be common to all governments, as certain great principles should serve as the basis of prison administration.

It was for this purpose that there met at Frankfort-on-the-Main first, then at Brussels, and later at Frankfort, some gentlemen specially devoted to prison questions; but these meetings were efforts which produced unimportant results.

It was not until 1872, thanks to the initiative of the eminent and indefatigable Dr. Wines, that the first prison congress was successfully held, at which the representatives of most of the governments took part; gentlemen eminent in science, delegates from philanthropic societies, and others. It was London which had the honor

to gather in its walls all these illustrious men. And who should dispute this honor for England? It is the country of Howard, of Romilly, of Bentham, of Maconochie, of Recorder Hill, of Walter Crofton, of Elizabeth Fry, and of Mary Carpenter.

The congress of London has accomplished its task. But each member learned that there remained something to do; that the time had been too short for the preliminary studies and for successful deliberation upon all the grave and complex questions which had been proposed to the congress. Scarcely had it been closed before a commission composed of representatives from part of the States represented at the congress of London met at Brussels, and later at Bruschal, to discuss the organization of future prison congresses.

One of the first questions proposed at this session was the place of the next reunion. Stockholm was named and was accepted not only with acclamation, but enthusiasm, and soon after the commission had the honor to obtain from Your Majesty the gracious invitation for the second international congress to meet in the capital of Sweden.

What country, truly, has so many claims for this second congress? In what other land can be found a king who has so profoundly studied prison questions and published a work of such high merit and well appreciated in the learned world and in administrative circles as this work due to the pen of the late Oscar I, your illustrious father?

Where is the government which follows with more attention all improvements in prison reform in other countries, in the organization of reform schools, in a word, in all that is connected with the prevention and repression of crime, and who utilizes these improvements for his country with so much wisdom and success as the Government of Your Majesty? No doubt the commission well knew that a sympathetic welcome awaited it in Italy, and the Italian Government which, by its delegates, demands that the next congress shall be held in Rome, confirms this sentiment. But between the country of Oscar I and of Beccaria, the commission does not hesitate an instant, and chooses Stockholm.

And on my part, sire, permit me to add, in the name of the members of the congress, where could we have found a welcome so amiable and cordial, a hospitality so large and gracious as that which we have received in Stockholm?

Your Majesty has taken the pains to come from a distance to honor the congress by your illustrious presence, and this evening you have kindly sacrificed several hours to extend to us the most splendid hospitality of your palace.

This is not all. We have learned with gratitude that the Government of Your Majesty has charged itself with printing and publishing the proceedings of this congress, and to put itself in communication with other governments to realize one of the projects of the congress—that of creating a permanent prison commission composed of the delegates of the different countries.

All these acts highly demonstrate the value Your Majesty attaches to the questions which occupy our attention, and fill our hearts with the most profound gratitude and the highest respect for you.

Permit me, sire, to offer a toast to the health of Your Majesty.

This toast was applauded with enthusiasm by all.

The King replied as follows:

GENTLEMEN: I am very sensible to the words which M. de Grot has addressed to me in the name of the congress. First of all, I thank you for recalling the memory of my venerated father in a sense as honorable to him as dear to my heart. The objects to which all our efforts tend are of the highest importance. Society can not exist without law, and law requires that crime shall be punished. At the same time, legal punishment should not tend to the destruction, but to the reformation of the guilty. To my mind, the idea of justice is associated with sentiments of humanity and love for our fellow-beings.

I certainly admit that this great truth encounters many difficulties in its application, but such difficulties will not be insurmountable for gentlemen so enlightened and expert in this matter as you are. Your repeated congresses, furnishing occasions for discussing penitentiary questions, I am convinced, bear their fruits, and applauding your efforts I propose a toast to the penitentiary congress of 1878.

Prolonged applause followed the King's address. He was followed by an eloquent, brief address by M. Pessina, official delegate from Italy, and then by Dr. Wines, who spoke at some length and ended by proposing a toast "to the memory of the man, the monarch, the statesman, the patriot, philanthropist and Christian, Oscar I."

At the close of the addresses the guests took leave of their royal host and returned to the steamboat, crossing the garden which extended before the chateau, and which was brilliantly illuminated. The masses of verdure, among which allegorical statues were arranged ornamenting the esplanade, produced the most ravishing effect in the midst of the somber summer night.

The boats moved from the shore, but the eyes remained fixed on the chateau, of which the imposing front was enhanced by illumination. This beautiful spectacle disappeared behind a hill and they found themselves surrounded by darkness; but new surprises were in store for them. Numerous villas on the shores of the Mälar were also illuminated, and from time to time Bengal fires revealed the graceful proportions of the islands drowned in purple light. At 11:30 o'clock in the evening the members arrived in Stockholm, bringing with them the sentiment of having passed, thanks to royal hospitality, an evening which they would keep forever in remembrance.

Besides this banquet given by the King, there were others equally entertaining, including the soirée extended by the Swedish members at Hasselbacken in the Royal Park, at which the governor of Stockholm and state officials and men of prominence in letters and art were present; also the banquet given by the city of Stockholm, at the place last named, where the guests were of like high character; also the excursion to Upsal to visit the great public institutions located there, and finally the farewell banquet at the Grand Hotel.

The general character of this congress, the ability of the members, the discussions on the various branches of penology, its platform and conclusions, mark this congress as one of the highest excellence.

THE CONGRESS OF ROME.

The Third International Prison Congress was held in Rome by invitation of the Italian Government in 1885. The international prison commission had made ample provision for the same, and its work was greatly facilitated by the local committee of arrangements. The magnitude of the labors of this congress is shown by the six large octavo volumes of the proceedings. The valuable additions to the literature of penology, furnished by this congress, can not be overestimated.

The reports, papers, addresses, and discussions cover the whole field of prison construction, discipline, management, and economy. Like its predecessors, it was not a gathering of impractical and sentimental theorists, but of experienced and able specialists, legislators, and jurists. The average ability and high character of the members of this congress and its predecessors give these associations a standing equal to the legislative body of any country.

The following governments were represented in Rome: Germany, (which included delegates from Baden, Bavaria, and Prussia), England, Austria-Hungary (including delegates from Austria, Crotia, and Hungary), Belgium, Chili, Denmark, Spain, The United States, France, Greece, Italy, Mexico, The Netherlands, Portugal, The Argentine Republic, Russia, Sweden, Norway, Switzerland, and Uruguay. The United States delegates were Dr. Henry Coggeshall, of Rhode Island; Samuel Houghton, of Washington; J. S. Milligan, of Philadelphia, delegate of the National Prison Association; W. M. F. Round, secretary of that association, and Stark Benjamin, of Connecticut. No absence was more noticeable than that of the venerable and distinguished Dr. E. C. Wines, who had died not long after the congress of Stockholm, and just after the completion of his great work on "The State of Prisons and Child-Saving Institutions." In one of the volumes of the congress of Rome is a brief biography of Dr. Wines, the founder of the international congress, with his portrait. The concluding words of the tribute to his memory are:

> The indefatigable apostle of penitentiary reform in both worlds, he has valiantly conquered his place among the most eminent philanthropists of our century, and his death will not only be a serious loss to his country, but to all the civilized world.

The character and standing of the delegates can be seen in the several positions held by them at home. Among the delegates, Baden sent a ministerial counselor, a professor of the University of Heidelberg, a privy councilor and director of the penitentiary of Fribourg, and a judge of the supreme court. Bavaria sent a professor of the University of Munich, and a ministerial counselor. Prussia sent a member of the Judicial Society of Berlin, a senator, a chaplain delegate from the Society of Prisons in Dusseldorf, and a government assessor. England sent a delegate of the Society of Social Science in London. Austria sent the assistant prosecuting attorney of Trieste, and the superior prosecuting attorney from the same city. Crotia sent an advocate and the director of the central prison of Lepoglava. Hungaria sent a ministerial counselor and the president of the high court of justice. Belgium sent its administrator-general of prisons, an inspector-general of prisons, and a director of the prison of St. Gilles. The delegates from Spain were an advocate and magistrate of Barcelona, an advocate and professor of the academy of jurisprudence, a deputy of Parliament, and a senator. France sent a director of a house of correction, the secretary of the Société Générale des Prisons, a member of the superior

council of prisons, the director of the prisons of France, a prison architect, a prison chaplain, a senator, a doctor of laws, the secretary of the Chamber of Deputies, and others. In the French delegation were gentlemen who have an international reputation. Italy sent advocates, directors of prisons, university professors, the director-general of prisons, prison inspectors, directors of statistics, Parliament deputies, barons, marquises, counts, civil engineers, directors of prisons, and many others equally qualified, as delegates. Russia sent her inspector-general of prisons, a judge of the court of Warsaw, professors, advocates, the secretary of the superior council of prisons, and others. From Sweden came a former director general of prisons, a doctor of laws, a member of the supreme court, etc. And so with all the other states.

The practical experience and special training of the delegates eminently fitted them to discuss all questions arising in the congress, and to profit for themselves and the countries they represented. It would be a pleasure to insert here the names of distinguished and able men who were members of this congress, but the list would be a long one, and injustice would be done by omission.

The International Prison Commission held meetings in Rome before the congress, beginning November 13, 1885.

At the first meeting the president of the commission, M. Beltrani-Scalia, the inspector-general of prisons and member of the cabinet, presided.

An address of welcome was delivered by His Excellency Duke Torlonia, *syndic* of Rome and president of the local executive committee. The response was made by M. de Holtzendorff.

The session was opened by a brief address from M. Beltrani-Scalia, who for many years has been at the head of the government of prisons in Italy and most prominent in prison reform in his country and always one of the most distinguished workers in the International Prison Congresses. He spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN AND HONORED COLLEAGUES: Permit me first to extend to you a cordial welcome and to express the regret that we can not also welcome two eminent members of the commission, Messrs. Almquist and Galkine-Wraskoy, who have not yet arrived in Rome. But we shall soon have the pleasure of seeing them, with others yet absent who will take part in our work. Unfortunately time has thinned our ranks, and we lament the death of Dr. Wines, of Count Sollohub, and of M. Ploos von Amstel, whose intelligent interest in prison reform we admire, and whose memory we shall always keep. Honor to those who are no more.

I am gratified to see that other states have accepted the terms of our permanent international commission, and the result appears to be of great importance; for in my opinion our commission, when it comprehends the representatives of every country, can render true service in accomplishing the reforms we seek. Permit me to propose for these governments a vote of thanks.

Faithful to the programme we have traced, we have endeavored to give to the congress of Rome a scientific and practical character. You will decide, gentlemen, if this programme is filled; but if the end is not attained it will not be your fault, for your favor and kindness have always exceeded our most exacting demands.

Our indefatigable colleague and secretary, Dr. Guillaume, will give you his report of the work of our bureau. But before I leave the floor permit me, gentlemen and honored colleagues, to express personally my most sincere gratitude to you, for in returning, as I hope, to private life at the close of the International Prison Congress of Rome, I shall be happy to carry with me the remembrance of all your kindness.

At one of the sessions of the commission His Excellency M. Galkine-Wraskoy, on behalf of the Russian Government, invited the congress to hold its next session in St. Petersburg. This invitation, on recommendation of the commission, was afterwards accepted by the congress.

The sessions of the commission were held in the Palace of Fine Arts and occupied several days.

The congress of Rome held its first session in the Palace of Fine Arts on the 16th day of November, 1885.

His Excellency M. Depretis, president of the council and Italian minister of the interior, opened the congress at 2 o'clock p. m., and before a large audience spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: I am very happy to be called by my official duties to welcome you to Rome.

The Government of the King witnesses with great satisfaction official representatives and masters of science called together to-day, in Rome, to take part in a prison congress. I pray, gentlemen delegates, that you tender to your governments our profound gratitude.

Permit me also to express my thanks to the ladies, who bring into this assembly the comforting image of goodness and the inspiration of maternal pity.

The discussions which you resume touch upon the most difficult antitheses of the social problem—on one side the absolute necessity of justice, which imposes the protection of all the rights and the repression of all criminal wrongs, and on the other side the sentiment of brotherly unity, which forces us to suffer with the feeble, to humble ourselves with the unfortunate who have been struck by the greatest of infirmities, moral decay.

Modern society, trained to faith in human progress, can not give up the hope of compelling evil itself to desire, and I almost say, to produce, good.

This sublime object, suggested by the eminent men I see in this hall, the noble statues and hallowed names, is a happy prelude to your works.

How many efforts, doubts, laborious experiments, and mistakes even, recall these glorious portraits of your predecessors. But hereafter, thanks to your care, we can go forward on solid ground.

After the reunions of Frankfort and Brussels, which indicated the way to fruitful researches, by the mutual exchange of ideas, by associations and experiences, the sessions of the congresses of London and Stockholm have impressed on the labors of the congress that sure and practical direction which should characterize all truly humanitarian work.

The congress of Stockholm selected Rome for the third session.

The Government of the King has cheerfully accepted the honor.

Called to exercise the very agreeable duties of hospitality, we desire to indicate the value we in Italy attach to the grave questions the congress proposes to discuss.

The programme itself indicates the importance of the work of this reunion. To secure the efficiency of punishments, to examine into the management of prisons, into the details of prison construction, into the discipline and hygiene of institutions, into the moral and intellectual training of prisoners, and the solution of the grave problem of humanity; behold the subjects of your learned discussions. One point, above all, merits in my opinion your especial solicitude. It is that which concerns the

rôle of moral rehabilitation, by which modern society courageously undertakes to complete the cold and austere action of justice. This rôle acquires for the young, whom it turns from the road of vice and crime, the prestige of a holy mission.

I have endeavored, gentlemen, delegates and members of the congress, to express in a few words the sentiments with which I welcome you to Rome. But I do not desire to prejudge your deliberations. You are about to inaugurate your interesting discussions. But at this moment I have received a telegram from His Majesty the King, which please permit me to read to you as it is written.

"In my own name and that of the nation I send greeting to the illustrious citizens of Italy and the distinguished strangers assembled in the capital of the realm as the International Prison Congress.

"I shall follow with most lively interest the proceedings to which men of so great learning may devote themselves, animated with a desire for the general welfare, and I, therefore, express the wish that their deliberations may bring about the happiest results in reconciling the rule of justice with that of humanity."

Gentlemen delegates and members of the congress, in the name of His Majesty the King I declare opened the third session, the session of Rome, of the International Prison Congress.

M. Beltrani-Scalia, as president of the permanent International Prison Commission, responded, thanking his excellency the president of the government council, the King and the Italian commission, which had aided in organizing the congress, and introduced Baron de Holtzendorff, vice-president of the International Prison Commission, who addressed the congress, and after him M. Mancini and Senator Canonico. After these addresses the congress passed into the exposition of the products of prison work and types of cells. The congress continued in session until November 24, holding general sessions and sessions in divisions. The closing session was one of great interest. The proceedings, addresses, etc., have a value in general literature. It was announced that Baron Holtzendorff, by reason of his health, was unable to preside, and the following was received from M. Depretis, president of the council and minister of the interior:

ROME, *November* 24, 1885.

Mr. PRESIDENT: Knowing that to-day the International Penitentiary Congress would complete its labors, I desired to be present at the session to thank all who by their attendance have honored the congress. Finding it impossible for me to be with you I request, Mr. President, that you present to the members of the congress this expression of my gratitude and that of the Italian Government.

The president of the council and minister of the interior.

DEPRETIS.

At this time Mr. Round, the secretary of the National Prison Association of the United States, extended a cordial invitation to the members to attend the meeting of that association to be held in Atlanta, Ga., in October, 1886.

The discussion for this session was on this question of the programme:

"What are the educational means for Sundays and week days that should be used along with religious instruction?"

The first speaker was Mademoiselle Poet, doctor of laws, of the

faculty of Turin, who spoke on the subject ably and intelligently. At the close of her address she presented the conclusions she recommended to the question, which were adopted and will be found in the programme.

She was followed by Count Forestra, who in the course of his remarks said:

Permit me to say publicly that I rejoice in having seen the ladies taking part in our work, and in hearing at this time the remarkable report of Mademoiselle Poet, doctor of laws, of the faculty of Turin. Honor to this young lady, who has attained the university degree with éclat, demonstrating thus the right of women to the liberal professions and to every other right from which she is not separated by the special condition of sex. At the same time I regret that the court of Turin would not admit the lady doctor of laws to practice the profession of law, and I hope that Mademoiselle Poet may yet find in some other jurisdiction more favor.

The advance of progressive ideas, of equity, and of justice, which tend every day to further render to woman all rights compatible with her sex can not be checked by such opposition. And Italy, which is the land of liberty and the arts, ought not to delay discarding the yoke of old prejudices and unjust precedents, which no longer belong to this time.

I hope, gentlemen, as you have admitted, and justly so, the ladies to take part in our work, that you will agree with me, and will pardon this digression in favor of the equality of woman, which in time all nations must recognize.

This may be read with profit by some of the conservative institutions which have not yet followed the modern liberal, just, and intelligent example of Michigan, the doors of whose great university, as well as its law and medical departments, stand wide open for woman, whatever land she may hail from.

The closing session was quite lengthy, as reports from the several sections of the congress were presented and the conclusions voted on.

The following address of the president of the congress closed its labors:

GENTLEMEN: The order of the day for the session of the International Congress of Rome having been exhausted, I can not leave the chair of the presidency without addressing to you gentlemen, members of the congress, some words which I hope will faithfully echo your sentiments. We complete a work, gentlemen, of which the end is the public good of every country, of every nation, and which must have a salutary effect for international prison management. We have freely expressed our ideas, our opinions, and the results of our experiences, and we have submitted to the free expression of those who are interested in the end we seek.

If this work has succeeded, it is not to you only that the most of the merit should be attributed.

Our intellectual efforts would have been employed in vain if a high patronage had not opened the arena in which our labors are accomplished.

It is in the first place to His Majesty the King of Italy that we owe our most humble thanks for the gracious permission that he has given us to unite under his powerful protection, and for the lively interest he has shown by his visit to the exposition. This gracious solicitude increases our zeal for the future and assures our future success.

In the second place, I must express our most sincere thanks to the noble and illustrious Italian nation, which has prepared and given us such a cordial welcome. The ancestors of this nation, gentlemen, as you well know, conquered and subjugated in ancient times foreign people by the force of arms. To-day we freely admit ourselves conquered by the intellectual force and by the sublime principles we pursue.

Our gratitude to the Government should not be less, above all, to our illustrious president, M. Depretis, for the powerful aid he has accorded and for the prestige which his friendly assistance has procured for us.

We express our sentiments of gratitude to the city of Rome, and to her illustrious magistrate, the Duke of Torlonia, for the sympathy with which he has honored us.

Finally, I fulfill an agreeable duty in expressing our sentiments of gratitude to our Italian colleagues and to the Italian commissioners for the excellent arrangements by which they have facilitated our labors.

We should also include in our thanks the absent reporters and our secretary-general, as well as all those who sent their works and have shown thus their interest.

Having reached the close of our labors, it remains with me to declare closed the Third International Prison Congress of Rome, and I invite you to close the session with me by the cry, "Vive le Roi d'Italie!"

PROGRAMME OF THE CONGRESS OF ROME, WITH THE CONCLUSIONS ADOPTED BY THE CONGRESS.

Section 1.

Question 1. Would the suspension of certain civil or political rights for a term of years be consistent with a system of prison reform?

Conclusion.—The punishment of suspension is consistent with a system of prison reform on condition that it is only applied when the special act which results in conviction justifies the fear of an abuse of the law to the prejudice either of public or lawful private interests, and if it be inflicted for only a definite time, except when the principal punishment is for life.

Question 2. Could there not be substituted for imprisonment for certain misdemeanors some other punishment or restriction of liberty, such as labor in some establishment without confinement, or the limitation for a time to a place designated, or in case of a first light offense by admonition?

Consideration deferred to the next congress.

Question 3. What discretion should the judge have in determining the punishment?

Conclusions.—(1) The maximum punishment for each offense should be fixed by law, and the judge should have no power to exceed it.

(2) The law should fix the minimum penalty for each offense, but the minimum can be diminished by the judge when he believes that the offense is accompanied by extenuating circumstances which were not contemplated by the law.

(3) When penal law names two kinds of punishment, one for offenses which disgrace and one for offenses which do not, the judge may in certain cases substitute the least severe penalty when he finds in the offense punished, in the abstract, no dishonorable motive.

Question 4. What means should be adopted in legislation to reach more efficiently habitual receivers of stolen property and other persons who incite or influence the commission of crime?

Referred to the next congress.

Question 5. What should be the legal responsibility of parents or guardians for offenses committed by their children or wards?

Conclusions.—(1) The congress is of the opinion that it is for the interest of society that the legislature should guard against the evil consequences of the immoral education of children by their parents. One of the methods recommended is to authorize the courts to declare, for a stated time, the parental rights forfeited when the facts sufficiently justify that course.

Question 6. What authority should be conferred on the judge to commit young delinquents to public educational institutions or reformatories when they have been discharged as having acted without discernment, or in case they should be punished by imprisonment?

Conclusions.—The judge should have authority to commit a young delinquent who has been acquitted as having acted without discernment to an educational institution or to a reform school.

The limit of the detention in the institution should be fixed by the judge who should retain the right to discharge when the circumstances will warrant it. The sojourn in the institution may be shortened by conditional liberation; the child to continue under the supervision of the establishment.

(2) The judge should have the authority to determine that the imprisonment of the young delinquent should be in an educational or reformatory institution. This detention should be only in a public institution.

(3) Reserving the laws established in different countries on the correctional authority of parents, the congress expresses the opinion that in developing the paternal authority, the legislature should be inspired with the high idea of fully respecting the unlimited authority of the head of the family when exercised in a manner not hurtful to the children.

Paternal correction should always be of a private character and should not establish any criminal precedent and should be without any criminal result.

Section 2.

Question 1. According to the most recent experience, what changes should be introduced in the construction of cellular prisons, to render them more simple and less expensive, without injury to the necessary conditions of a sound and intelligent system?

Conclusions.—Desiring not to lose the benefit of convict labor in prison construction or management in countries where such work is considered possible, there may be indicated for study, according to the country and the case, as examples, some economical features, as follows:

1. The simplification or suppression, under certain reservations, of exceptional conveniences and necessities; of all expenses for mere ornament or for the monumental effect of prison buildings; simplicity and severity of aspect being especially adapted to prisons.

2. The choice of location at a reasonable price.

3. The selection of grounds that will not require unusual labor to carry out the plan, and where the facilities for obtaining materials are sufficient and there is proximity to easy ways of communication to avoid expenses of transportation.

4. The selection of the least expensive materials, provided that they offer sufficient conditions of strength and adaptation to the needs of construction.

5. The introduction of less expense in special services, such as in the laundry, the bakery, or the hospital, by either introducing them in certain sections of the main building with the least expense, during the first construction, or in the light buildings near by.

6. A less expensive interior arrangement of chapel schools, their seats and platforms, the arrangement of chapel schools for half or part of the inmates, when double the number of the class or the conferences do not offer any inconveniences to the good direction of the services.

7. The simplification of the system for lighting, heating, water service, cleanliness, electric bells, so as to expend less in plumbing.

8. The decrease in size of the central hall or pavilion space, allowing only dimensions necessary for uniting the different wings.

9. The omission of space which would not be useful between the surrounding walls, drives, and buildings, to diminish the expenses of acquiring land and constructing walls. Less extent and greater height to be given to the buildings, when convenient, to economize expenses of construction and acquisition of land; constructing for example the cells in three stories instead of two when the exterior and interior ventilation will be secured.

10. The stonework, when possible, to be less massive, especially the walls of the upper stories intended for cells, for the more harmless prisoners and for those more submissive to discipline.

11. In general, the selection of architects, contractors, and builders having certain experience in this kind of work, and employed so as to avoid mistakes in the estimates and plans, and who will be interested in the economy of construction.

The congress at the same time advises:

That it would be useful to make a just classification between certain kinds of prisoners, and consequently between establishments where they should be placed.

On one hand would be classified, for example, convicts who should be placed in individual separation as complete as one would desire, but without having to undergo the severities of cellular punishment; that is to say, persons in the condition of preventive detention, and, by analogy, prisoners having to undergo confinement for a brief period. For this class houses of isolation would suffice, not having all the complication belonging to a true prison with a protracted sojourn, and allowing the mitigation of régime reserved to each individual according to his legal situation.

On the other hand would be those persons having to undergo, by reason of their sentence, a true cellular imprisonment. They would consequently be placed in establishments which would be provided with a complete and necessarily more costly cellular organization, but which would be inexpensive to create, thanks to the diminution of the prison population.

Question 2. What would be the best plan for local prisons for preventive detention or for brief confinement?

Conclusions.—Local prisons for preventive detention, or for short confinement, should be established on the plan of individual separation.

The régime of the accused should be exempt from everything which would have the character of punishment.

The prisoner undergoing a short sentence should have simple repressive confinement.

Question 3. Would it not be well to establish a better system of imprisonment than now followed for agricultural countries or for a population unacquainted with industrial work?

Conclusion.—The establishment of outdoor work for prisoners of some duration is recommended for some countries and for certain conditions of society. This work should not be considered as irreconcilable with present prison systems in different countries.

Question 4. Concerning councils or commissions of supervision for prisons and similar institutions, their organization, and the authority which the law should confer on them.

Conclusion.—It is indispensable that there should be, for every establishment where convicts undergo imprisonment, a board to supervise the condition of the inmates, to aid in their reformation, and to procure on their discharge the benefits of patronage.

Without intending anything derogatory to the legislatures in the certain States which control committees or commissions, the congress believes it is useful to take into consideration the following propositions:

(*a*) A vigilance and prison-aid committee, instituted by law, should exist for every penal institution.

(*b*) The committee should consist of members designated by law and chosen from former officers or other persons of known morality. The number should be in accordance with the magnitude of the institution. Part of this commission might be composed of one or several members of the judiciary of the district in which the institution is located, and one or more in such district representing the administration.

(*c*) In the establishment of a vigilance or prison-aid commission or committee, nothing should be done to impair the direction of the institution, especially in what relates to penal and disciplinary service, concerning which the direction has the responsibility.

(*d*) The operation of the commission or committee should be under the authority of the Government direction of prisons.

(*e*) The functions of the commission should consist mainly in advising on measures relating to labor, the moral and religious instruction, the execution of regulations relative to the discipline of prisoners, and to recommend to the general administration such reforms or modifications as it may deem necessary for the good service of the institution.

(*f*) The commission should also advise on all questions relating to pardons, to remitting or reducing punishment, to conditional liberation, to prepare for or procure the patronage of discharged prisoners, to inquire into putting into practice regulations relative to hygiene, the food and the support of the prisoners, and to unite in the control of the purchase of supplies, or in contracts concerning the same services.

Question 5. Upon what principle should the dietary of the prisoners be based in a hygienic and penitentiary point of view?

Conclusions.—The principles which should furnish the basis of the dietary of prisoners in a hygienic and penitentiary point of view are two; one philosophic and the other scientific.

The philosophic principle is presented in the general consideration of the subject.

As to the scientific principle, it rests upon the three following psychological ideas, corroborated by experience:

1. The prisoner in a state of health, without work, should take a minimum of necessary and sufficient food which is designated in physiology under the name of the maintenance ration. This ration is represented by a collection of foods suitably chosen and varied, in keeping with the climate, the customs of the different countries and in which meat should be included.

2. The prisoner who works needs more food. The work ration is represented above the support ration by foods suitably chosen and varied.

3. The food should supply physiological demands, the proportion of albumen or nitrogen to non-albuminous food can vary from one-third to one-sixth, but should not deviate materially or permanently from this.

In application of these principles, we add that on their entrance to the prison, the convicts should have a medical examination to determine the state of their health, their physical constitution and their former manner of living. They should be weighed periodically.

A special dietary should be established for those whose constitutions are impaired and for those in places where epidemics prevail.

Question 6. Which is preferable in prisons; work for the administration or contract labor?

The discussion of this question is deferred until the next congress. There were a number of able and exhaustive papers submitted on this subject which are published in the proceedings. They are worthy of a careful examination.

Question 7. To what extent is prison labor injurious to free labor? How can prison labor be organized to avoid as much as possible complication with free labor?

The discussion of this question is continued until the next congress. The interesting and highly valuable reports on this subject, from various countries, are worthy of profound study.

Question 8. What encouragement can be extended to prisoners in the interest of good discipline, especially to what extent can they be allowed to dispose freely of their earnings?

Discussion continued until the next congress.

Section 3.

Question 1. Should refuges be established for discharged prisoners, and if so, how should they be provided?

On this question the congress adopted a negative conclusion.

Question 2. What would be the best course to follow to secure a regular exchange of lists of convictions between the different States?

Conclusion.—The congress expresses the opinion that a uniform system of exchanged lists of judicial convictions should be adopted in as many countries as possible. To attain this end it is probable that a diplomatic conference should be held.

Until this uniformity is established the exchange of bulletins of sentences could be had between the several Governments by treaties or by simple conventions.

Question 3. Should there be introduced in treaties of extradition a clause for the exchange of prisoners condemned at common law, determined by the treaties?

Conclusions.—The exchange of those condemned to undergo in their original country an imprisonment pronounced by a foreign judge is not practicable; in every case it would not be desirable.

However, in cases where prison instruction would be more difficult, it is desirable that the States having penal and similar institutions should reciprocally accord the right of intrusting the original country with the execution of the punishment, except, it being well understood, the final examination and reimbursement of expenses.

Question 4. What are the most efficient means to prevent and combat vagabondage?

Conclusions.—Public aid should be so regulated that every indigent person should be certain to obtain a living; but only in compensation for work adapted to his condition.

Indigent persons who, notwithstanding this assistance, so regulated, surrender themselves to vagabondage and fall consequently under the provisions of the law, should be severely punished by forced labor in the workhouse.

Question 5. Should visits to prisoners by members of patronage societies or benevolent associations, but strangers to the administration, be allowed and encouraged?

Conclusions.—The Congress is of the opinion that visits to prisoners by members of patronage societies or by members of benevolent associations, but strangers to the administration, should be authorized and encouraged, under regulations to avoid dual influence or authority.

The interview of the visitor with the prisoner should be as free as possible from the presence of the guard.

Question 6. What are the most efficient means to prevent and combat the abuse of alcoholic beverages?

The discussion of this question was only opened. It has been continued by able papers submitted from several countries by eminent writers for the congress in St. Petersburg.

Question 7. According to what principles should schools be established in penal institutions?

Conclusions.—The congress considers that in all prisons for either sex there should exist schools in which there should be taught at least reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, object lessons, and, if possible, elementary designing.

Besides this there should be given to both sexes a professional education, consisting of an apprenticeship in the arts and trades so that they could earn their living after their discharge.

Question 8. What are the educational methods which should be employed Sundays or week days along with religious instruction?

Conclusions.—The congress expresses the view that prisoners of both sexes on Sundays and week days should be free to choose the occupation which is suitable to them among those at their disposal.

These occupations should be according to the country—reading, music, design, wood-carving, participation in good works, etc.

Attendance at conferences on the elements of morality, of law, and other sciences, according to the special circumstances of the place.

This programme and the conclusions are quite lengthy as compared with those of

London and Stockholm. In point of interest it may be considered the equal of that of Stockholm. The conclusions of these congresses were obtained by vote, which in many cases showed a great variety of opinion. The ideas of the conclusions in many instances have a special European character. The carving in wood and sculpture and designing on Sunday would scarcely find place in an American prison. The American Sunday and that on the continent are widely different in character; and then in the Stockholm conclusions is found the caste idea, shown by the rule laid down that the city child should be taught in institutions city trades or occupations, while the country boy should be taught to follow only the occupation of his parents. No such idea could for an instant be tolerated in America, where equal rights prevail, and where the child from the humblest origin may attain the highest position.

SOUVENIR OF THE CONGRESS OF ROME.

One of the six volumes of the proceedings of the congress of Rome is devoted to brief thoughts and maxims upon prison reform, written by the members for this purpose.

One of the first pages is devoted to the inscriptions which were placed at the entrance of the exposition and which read as follows:

"Virtuti est domare quæ cuncti pavent." This was an inscription placed over the gate of the Rasp house of Amsterdam in 1660. Another was "Parum est coercere improbas pœna, nisi probas efficias disciplina." This inscription was placed over the gate of the house of correction of St. Michael, in Rome, in 1703. And another, "In severitate humanitas." This is in the souvenir album and was the thought of Counselor Pics.

The ancient idea of prisons may be seen in the forbidding aspect, stern and solemn, of the old Newgate stone prison in London, where there is heavily cut in projecting stone a massive chain to terrorize the Jack Shepards of that day. And yet such men as William Penn were confined there as well as Jack Shepard.

A FEW OF THE MAXIMS AND THOUGHTS.

Count d'Olivecrona of Sweden, says:

It is by devoting special care to the education of the young generation and in directing them in the way of religion and civil virtues that we can best secure for the future public safety and social order.

We can not too often repeat that the most sure means to restrain crime or to suppress its causes and relapses are the good education of the young, in view of improving the economic and moral condition of the working classes.

This distinguished writer is a member of the supreme court of Sweden, former professor of law in the University of Upsal, corresponding member of the Institute of France, etc. He was born October 7, 1817.

Mr. J. Stevens, director of the prison of St. Gilles, says:

Life in common, however conducted, completes the corruption of convicts. It is incompatible with their reformation and consequently excludes all hope of reformation.

Mr. Félix Voisin, counselor of the court of appeals of France, says:

Individual imprisonment applied to correctional punishments and consequently to penalties of short duration appears to me to be the only prison system that recom-

mends itself definitely to statesmen. It responds to the real needs of society, since it is desired by the guilty, not perverted, and is dreaded with fear by recidivists. But a steady perseverance in its application is the first condition of its success.

Mr. Adolph Prins, inspector-general of the prisons of Belgium and professor of penal law in the University of Brussels, says:

The ideal prison régime should be, to employ a familiar comparison, like a kind of sieve, which permits little by little, thanks to the regular and methodical sorting, the corrigibles to escape, but inexorably retains incurable criminals.

Mr. Julius Illing, of Berlin, says:

The best prison system will remain ineffectual if you do not find persons sufficiently intelligent and devoted to apply it.

Mr. René Bérenger, senator, and relative of the poet, says:

There can be no efficient reform without a good system of encouragement, compensation during detention, and patronage after liberation.

Edmund F. Du Cane, of England, says:

The right of society to restrain or punish criminals is founded on the right of self preservation, which belongs to everyone.

Any excess in the degree of restraint or punishment is an abuse of this right. Society must justify its right to punish crime by accepting also the duty of doing its utmost to prevent it.

Mr. Frederick Hill, of England, says:

A criminal at large is a double curse, a curse to society and a curse to himself. He is morally diseased, and should be placed under restraint; not for a fixed time, but till he is cured.

Count Pobedonostzeff, of St. Petersburg, says:

It is necessary to concentrate all our efforts on the prevention of crime rather than upon the reform of criminals. * * * In the front rank of preventive measures is the primary school. It is our anchor of safety.

Mr. Louis Bonneville de Marsangy, advocate of Paris, says:

Education makes the man. Consequent upon what it receives, the child becomes a useful citizen or a criminal. The basis of every prison system should be the reformation of abandoned or criminal children.

Mr. Randall, of Michigan, says:

1. Build fewer prisons and more reformatories.
2. Build fewer reformatories and more home schools for abandoned and dependent children.
3. Build fewer schools for the children of the poor by teaching virtue, temperance, and industry in families.

Eugénie, Princess d'Oldenburg, of Russia, says:

It is desirable that during his long detention they should make to shine like a beacon in the eyes of the prisoner the hope that when his just punishment has ended he will have again the power to become an honest man and a useful member to his country and to society.

This is the distinguished lady of the imperial family who joined with her husband, the prince, in extending so many courtesies to the members of the Congress of St. Petersburg.

Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, of Russia, says:

Religion and labor—behold the strongest agents for the prevention of crime. It is upon them that prison reform should be based, of which the true end is to combat relapses.

Barwick Baker, of England, says:

We should study carefully to give the maximum of deterrence with the minimum of pain, and the maximum of reformation with the minimum of incarceration.

Our system of progressive punishment, giving on the first conviction of an ordinary offense 1 month in a separate prison, explaining that a second will entail 6 months in a separate cell and 3 or 4 years of friendly aid and supervision, while a third will bring 5 years of penal servitude, with a longer supervision, produces the effect we require.

Mr. Baker, one of the highest authorities in penology, died since the congress of Rome.

Mr. Serge de Yakowlew, of Russia, says:

One of the bases of the progress of humanity is the substitution of educational institutions for young delinquents, instead of prisons.

Mr. F. D. Mouat, of London, says:

Prison reform stands in the same relation to prison discipline that prevention does to curative measures in medicine. The former influences whole communities in relation to crime and criminals. The latter affects only the individual to whom it is applied, and too often fails in any good influence even upon him. Therefore prison reform should aim rather at prevention than cure.

These few selections must serve as examples of the many thoughts and maxims that are published in the Album. Some were written in Italian, Spanish, and German, but they were mainly in French, the official language of the congress. There is a similar souvenir album in preparation for the Congress of St. Petersburg.

THE EXPOSITION OF PRISON LABOR IN ROME.

On the occasion of the International Prison Congress of Rome the executive committee organized an exposition relative to the construction and furnishing of prisons. It comprised models of building materials in brick and cement for walls, pavements, and roofs, and samples of articles for the personal use of the prisoners, and clothing and arms for the guards. There were samples of irons and other instruments used for punishment in different prisons and for different classes of prisoners. There were types of locks, apparatus for disinfection, samples of grates for windows, and doors for cells. There were models in relief and designs of some of the most noted prisons in the different States which took part in the congress. Near this exposition were three large halls, where were completed in true proportions types of the highest perfected cells in Europe and America.

Some articles were sent directly to the committee. There were thus collected doors, grates, furniture, and tools from the most distant countries, exactly in imitation of those in use in the respective institu-

tions. The exposition contained twenty-eight cells belonging to sixteen States, and were placed in three halls. The first contained sixteen cells; one of the prison of Fribourg, Baden; one of the prison of Lenzbourg, Switzerland; one of the prison of Langholmen, Sweden; one from the prison of Aakeberg, Norway; types adopted in England and France, Nuremberg, Bavaria, the Italian establishments of Milan, Lucques, Tivoli, St. Michael in Rome, Pérouse, Pallance, Alexandria, and finally the ancient prison called the Pits of Venice, representing the type of prisons of the Middle Ages.

The second corridor had seven cells, belonging to the prisons of Horsens and Vridslöselille, Denmark; the prison of St. Gilles, Brussels; the prison of Szeged, Hungary; the house of arrest of St. Petersburg; the prison of Carlau, Austria, and the prison of Rotterdam, Netherlands.

In the third corridor were cells from the prison in Madrid, the prison in Philadelphia, the reformatory in Concord, Mass., and the Italian prison of Volterre.

In a contiguous court were two manikins, one representing an Italian convict at hard labor in his working dress for outdoors, and the other his guard with uniform and arms.

Each cell was furnished complete with all articles and tools ordinarily required. Manikins clothed in prison costume were placed in the cells and others in the corridors near each door, representing guards in their different uniforms and arms.

A detailed description was given in the proceedings of the exhibit of each nation, but must be omitted here.

The exhibit was large and interesting, in which fourteen governments were well represented, viz: England, Baden, Bavaria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, the United States of America, France, Hungary, Norway, Netherlands, Russia, Sweden, and Switzerland. There were many exhibits from the United States, but the greater part did not arrive until after the close of the exposition. However, there were in the second group articles of clothing and others manufactured for men, women, and children; in the fourth group there were chains for ships; in the fifth gilt borders for chairs and straw carpets; in the sixth bound books, and in the seventh doll furniture. These were made and sent by the Philadelphia prison, whose inspectors took great interest in making the exhibit. These were only a small part of the articles sent from America, and if they had arrived in time the exhibit would have been large, and would have shown the great success in our country in prison work.

An account of the products of prison labor in the exposition covers many pages, and it is impossible to present even a summary of the large exhibit here.

DR. ENOCH C. WINES.

About 395 pages in one volume of the proceedings of the Congress of Rome is devoted to brief biographies with portraits of men and women who have become eminent in prison reform. Among the prominent are John Howard and Mary Carpenter, of England; Baccaria, of Italy; De Metz, of France; Catherine II, of Russia; Oscar I, of Sweden, and Livingstone, Penn, and Wines, of the United States.

The name of Dr. Enoch C. Wines is so closely associated with the history and labors of the International Prison Congress and prison reform generally that a brief notice of his life and works is transferred to this report.

Enoch C. Wines was born in New Jersey, the 17th day of February, 1806, of parents of Welch origin, who emigrated to America before the War of Independence. His father was a farmer, and young Wines worked with his parents until the age of 15 years. Soon after he entered the university, passing creditable examinations, and was made a doctor of divinity and doctor of laws in 1827.

The following year he opened, at Washington, a school which he left in 1829 to accept a position as professor on board the school-ship *Constellation*, which was to cruise in the Mediterranean. This voyage enabled him to learn the languages of the principal countries of southern Europe, and on his return to America he published, in 1832, his first literary work in two volumes, under the title of "Two years and a half in the American marine." In 1833 the eminent scholar, Robert Patton, his professor of Greek and superintendent of the Seminary of Edgehill, at Princeton, N. J., having died, Dr. Wines succeeded him and became the proprietor of the institution.

Six years after he was named professor in a public college founded in Philadelphia at the expense of the city for the purpose of giving a high education to the best scholars of the city schools.

During his career of nearly 20 years as professor he published several volumes upon education and several remarkable essays in different reviews and a great number of articles in the journals upon the same subject. He published also an important work under the title "Commentaries on the Laws of the Ancient Hebrews," and many works on theology, having served the church during six years, from 1849, in the capacity of pastor. In 1859 he was called to the management of an educational institution in the State of Missouri and occupied the position two years.

In 1861 civil war broke out in America and Dr. Wines returned to New York, where he accepted the duties of secretary of the prison association of New York, and began then the most remarkable work of his life, the reform of prisons.

He devoted himself first to improving the revenues of the association, increasing them from $2,000 to $10,000. In 1869 he proposed to the association the calling in one of the capitals of Europe an interna-

tional congress to study the questions which relate to the prevention and repression of crime, but for fear of failure his project was not approved.

Dr. Wines was not discouraged, and on his appeal there met, in October, 1870, in Cincinnati, Ohio, a national congress, which, under the presidency of Hon. R. B. Hayes, then Governor of that State and since President of the United States, called together many distinguished citizens, directors of prisons, reform schools, etc. Among the important resolutions of that congress was one to the effect that the time had come when an international prison congress could be called with good chances of success.

Convinced that in the congress the coöperation of two elements, official and non-official, was necessary, Dr. Wines obtained, through a Congressional appropriation and appointment from President Grant, the authority as a commissioner delegated to the international congress proposed by him, and, furnished with his appointment and a circular letter, he addressed himself to all our foreign ministers to obtain their assistance. Provided with letters from high officials he embarked in July, 1871, for Europe, where, acting in harmony with specialists of the different countries, he succeeded in organizing the first International Prison Congress of London, which met in July, 1872.

The success of the congress is well known. It had nearly 400 members—nearly 100 official delegates from different governments or from English colonies. Before adjournment the Congress of London formed an international prison commission charged with organizing the second congress, and Dr. Wines was made president of this commission.

As president he organized the congress of Stockholm which took place in August, 1878, and it is to his efforts and labors, to his indefatigable zeal for prison reform we owe the durable and substantial work of the two congresses of which he was promoter.

During six years consecrated to this humane work, he made numerous voyages between Europe and America, and published many annual reports containing the discussions and the most important information relative to prison reform and the care and education of abandoned children.

December 10, 1879, when, notwithstanding his age of 79 years, he gave hopes that for a long time to come his energetic perseverance and his zeal, his knowledge and his experience, would yet benefit the work of prison reform, he suddenly died, at Cambridge, Mass., where he had just made a final supervision of the publication of his last and greatest work on "The State of Prisons and Child-saving Institutions" throughout the world. The indefatigable apostle of prison reform in two worlds, he had bravely conquered his place among the most eminent philanthropists of our age, and his death is not only a painful loss to his own country but to all the civilized world.

Were the materials at hand it would be a great pleasure to place here

another biography, that of Dr. Guillaume, of Switzerland, the very able and efficient secretary general of the international prison commission, and the secretary general of the congress of Stockholm, Rome, and St. Petersburg. Since the death of Dr. Wines no one has more efficiently and ably assisted in the organization and operations of the third and fourth congresses. Modest, zealous, intelligent, well versed in at least the French, German, and English languages, he has been, to a great extent, the organizer and promoter of the last two congresses. He was for years on most intimate terms with Dr. Wines, from whom he received his first training and instruction in the organization of international congresses in Neufchâtel, his own home, where he was for a long time director of the prison and enjoyed a high reputation as prison official. He has for some years been director of statistics for the Republic of Switzerland in the state buildings in Berne. The writer is indebted to him for many kind courtesies in St. Petersburg, and by his invitation spent a day with him in Berne. He had a very interesting experience in visiting the various Government offices, the two legislative halls, the state prison, and a child's institution in the suburbs, including a call on the President of the Republic, M. Louis Ruchannet, who has occupied that position for 15 years, and also a call on the Russian minister at the Russian legation. On that occasion the minister, having previously sent for Dr. Guillaume, presented him, in behalf of the Emperor of Russia, a large gold snuffbox, of great value, literally covered with diamonds, the monogram of the Emperor being in large letters formed of diamonds on the cover. This was sent as a testimonial of the appreciation of the Emperor for the arduous and successful labors of the secretary general, and the tribute could not have been more worthily bestowed.

May he long be spared to carry on the work of our lamented Dr. Wines.

FESTIVALS AND BANQUETS.

The same national, official, and government courtesies were extended to the Congress of Rome as were shown in Stockholm in 1878. These included an excursion to Tivoli, a reception given by the prefect of Rome and Madam Gravina, marchioness, at the palace of the prefect; a gala representation at the theater Costanzi, as guests of the Italian commission, the play being the opera Carmen; a banquet at the capital, extended by the Italian commission; a reception at the Quirinal; a visit to the normal school and gardens; a visit to the penitentiary Regina-Coeli; a visit to the penitentiary colony of "Trois-Fontaines," and a visit to the penitentiary colony of Castiadas (in Sardinia).

The reception at the Quirinal was of special interest, as it was to meet the King and Queen of Italy on invitation of the Queen, as follows:

Il preffetto di Palazzo e la Dama d' onore della Regina d' ordine delle Loro Maestà, hanno l' onere d' invitare il Signor ———————— al pranzo di Corte per il giorno di lunedì 23 novembre 1885 alle ore 6 pomeridiane.

At the hour named a brilliant and large gathering met at the Quirinal, and the delegates grouped by nationality were successively presented by Senator Canonico to the King and Queen, who entertained all in a very amiable manner. After this the royal banquet was served, and then the guests spent some hours in familiar conversation in the sumptuous salons of the royal palace, pleased with their entertainment.

A description of these courtesies covers many pages in the proceedings of the congress, and while they do not of themselves furnish information relative to prison reform, they do exhibit the interest of the Government in the subject and show the highest respect for the eminent gentlemen then present in Rome to discuss its problems.

There were only two American reports presented at this Congress. One was a brief history of prison reform in this country by "M. B." The full name of the author is not given, and is not known to the writer. It is a report of about 18 pages, and is a valuable and interesting summary.

The other report was by C. D. Randall, of Coldwater, Michigan, and the subject was the following section of the programme:

> What authority should the judge have to commit young delinquents to houses of correction or of reform, either where they have been discharged as having acted without discernment, or where they are sentenced to imprisonment?

The programme and conclusions of the Congress of Rome fail to indicate the vast fund of information relating to prison construction and management found in the reports and discussions. Only by reading the extensive proceedings can the value of the work at Rome be understood. They can only be suggested here with the hope that prison officials in this country will in time be benefited by reading them.

While the conclusions adopted in this and other congresses show the drift of the thought of the majority, they need not be considered as unquestioned authority, as other congresses may modify them. The repeated discussions will tend to perfect conclusions, so that in time penology may become almost one of the exact sciences.

ADVANCE OPINIONS ON THE ST. PETERSBURG CONGRESS.

There are no gentlemen in this country more qualified to speak on the importance of the congress than the writers of the following letters, which were addressed to the writer of this report:

THE NEW YORK STATE REFORMATORY,
Elmira, N. Y., February 1, 1890.

MY DEAR SIR: Yours 25th. It is scarcely possible to exaggerate the importance of prison reform in the true and rationalistic sense of the term. The increase of crimes and criminals is fast becoming a public menace, and the principles and methods necessary to stay its progress are of the greatest value for creating a correct public sense of the wisdom and mercy of that universal moral government under which we all are. It has been said that the civilization of an age may be ascertained by finding how society treats the criminals offending against her laws.

The cost and contamination of crimes also appeal to philanthropists to devise some relief by way of reformation of criminals.

There is no way to avoid the consideration of crime and criminals, for they force, painfully force, their care upon us.

Great good must arise from the world's congresses and especially that one to be held at St. Petersburg this year.

Europeans have a prison or penological literature. We have none. The best minds of Europe are carefully studying criminal anthropology or psychology; their writings serving to elevate and educate our ideas.

I greatly hope there may be a large and influential delegation from America; one to return freighted with valuable facts and encouragement for us all.

Truly,

Z. R. BROCKWAY.

The following is from the Rev. Fred. H. Wines, secretary of the State Board of Charities of Illinois, and former secretary of the National Prison Association of the United States, of which ex-President Hayes is the president. The Rev. Mr. Wines has not only a national but an international reputation as a specialist in penology and writer and speaker in that science, which does not need the name of his distinguished father to make him known. He has lately been in charge of the United States census department relating to the statistics of pauperism and crime.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *March* 3, 1890.

DEAR SIR: On my arrival in Washington, after a tour among the prisons of this country which has lasted for nearly two months past, I find your letters. * * *

I have done all in my power to awaken interest in the St. Petersburg Congress on the part of the American public. The National Prison Congress at Nashville passed, at my suggestion, a resolution favoring it, and I send you by this mail a copy of the proceedings of the board of directors, in which you will find this resolution on page 10. I have presented it to the President and to the Secretary of State, and am assured of their interest in the congress and their desire to see it successful and influential for good in Russia and throughout the world.

I do not know what I could say commending this congress that would be of special value. The entire movement was the work of my father, and the crowning glory of his laborious and useful life.

I have been in correspondence with the international commission during all these years, and have felt the deepest concern for the coöperation of America and of the United States Government in the work which they are attempting to accomplish.

I am, as always, very sincerely yours,

FRED. H. WINES.

From the proceedings of the board of directors of the National Prison Association held in Nashville, Tenn., in November, 1889, the following is taken.

Ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes introduced the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That it is the unanimous wish of the National Prison Association that the President and Congress of the United States shall respond favorably to the invitation of the Russian Government to this country to be represented in the International Penitentiary Congress in St. Petersburg in June, 1890, by filling the vacancy existing in the international penitentiary commission and providing for representation in the congress.

Resolved, That the secretary of the association be instructed to communicate this action to the President and to the Secretary of State.

STATE HALL,
Albany, N. Y., February 17, 1890.

MY DEAR SIR: It is hardly necessary to urge upon a person of your ripe experience in prison reform and preventive work the importance of personal association and of discussion by those specially interested in the reformation of criminals, or having practical knowledge relating thereto.

The great advance that has been made in prison reform within the last quarter of a century, even in the last decade, leads one to indulge in the most hopeful expectations of the future, should the unselfish and earnest efforts that have been put forth in the past be continued. I think that it must be conceded, that while the organization devoted to the work in the several States and the National Prison Association of America have accomplished a great deal, much of the good they have done has been through the stimulus imparted by the several international prison congresses that have from time to time been held, in which the discussions were extended to broader fields. I therefore trust that you will use your influence to promote, in every way, the success of the international prison congress, which it is proposed to hold in St. Petersburg. The attendance of delegates should include representatives from every civilized country. There are special reasons, which must be obvious to all familiar with the subject, why the forthcoming world's congress should be so constituted as to present the most advanced views upon the important subject of penology.

The location of this congress in Russia is especially significant of the progress of prison reform. It evinces a spirit on the part of that nation to invite the fullest discussion of all prison questions in that country and elsewhere. It is to be hoped that one of the most brilliant results of the coming congress will be to hasten the day when the Russian system of transportation to Siberia, the rigors and severities of which are now attracting the attention of the civilized world, will happily be a thing of the past.

I am, my dear sir, yours with great respect,

WM. P. LETCHWORTH,
Commissioner State Board of Charities.

EDUCATION AND CRIME.

Learned essays have been written for many years on the subject and yet the exact position of education as a preventive of crime has not been fully determined.

Education will always be an important factor in the reduction of crime and pauperism. It is impossible to show by statistics the full effects of education in this respect. The statistics bearing on this question are very meager and unsatisfactory. The movement in the International Prison Congresses for international penitentiary statistics may in time secure a more thorough and extended system of statistics in each State. Enough, however, has been shown to demonstrate that ignorance is one of the important causes of crime. But the statistics taken have generally been with no settled rule as to what the education should be to prevent the tendency to crime. And then our idea of a true and rounded education has been much changed within a few years. At one time a knowledge of literature, languages, mathematics, etc., as in the college course, was considered as furnishing a perfect edu-

cation. Other elements have of late been introduced, and the student may now give preference to the natural sciences and techinal education without loss of educational caste.

George William Curtis lately said at the reunion at Brown University:

> The American college is now required to train American citizens. * * * With one hand it shall lead the young American to the secrets of material skill; it shall equip him to enter into the fullest trade with all the world, but with the other it shall lead him to lofty thought and to commerce with the skies. The college shall teach him the secret and methods of material success, * * * but it shall admonish him that man shall not live by bread alone and that the things which are eternal are unseen.

The education which will best prevent crime must be that which will afford the recipient a means of living. Governments have begun to recognize this. General Eaton, formerly Commissioner of Education, in an address said:

> Education in industry is a safeguard against crime. France has forty centers of industrial education connected with the public system of Paris. The London school board has forty centers of cookery; there are eighteen schools for training nurses. Boston has put sewing in the grammar schools for girls with success. Boston proposes a center of joinery on the plan of the industrial schools of Paris. Intelligence and good character should be universal. Everyone should have the spirit to acquire excellence and to do the best in whatever he undertakes. No child can be turned over to neglect and waste. A single child of neglect may become the parent of descendants filling by the hundred institutions of pauperism and crime. Any child may save his country.

Hon. William T. Harris, in an able paper on compulsory education, says:

> Now, any one of the educational agencies may fail absolutely to prevent crime. But social science does not find other recourse than to strive to make more efficient these agencies—improve the family nurture, improve the school, the trades, the vocations, the partisan politics, the Sunday school. All these instrumentalities are very crude, as one may easily see, in their present condition. The question which immediately concerns us is the improvement of the common-school education as preventive of crime, by making it more effective in reaching all the children of the community.

The following statement from a pamphlet from the Industrial Education Association of New York at this time shows the position of Russia in industrial education:

> Unquestionably, the Russian technologic system, as taught in the school of mechanic arts in Boston and elsewhere, if introduced into the reform and industrial schools of this country, would result in far greater progress than has been attained.

The increase of intelligence civilizes and restrains vicious tendencies, cultivates the taste and desire for pure associations, makes vice hideous and virtue attractive. The child reared under elevating influences will quickly shrink from everything which lowers and degrades. Hence, in the very nature of things, the higher, more practical, and more moral is the training and education, the better and stronger in all that is good, virtuous, and great will be the man.

PART II.

THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

THE PREPARATION.

As president of the International Prison Commission and as the chief of the official delegates in the Congress of Rome, Mr. Wraskoy had extended the invitation of Russia to hold the fourth congress in St. Petersburg, which had been unanimously accepted.

Continuing as president of the commission, and having been appointed president of the local commission of organization, and being the chief of the Russian prison administration, he brought to the discharge of his duties in organizing the congress his powers and influence in these various associations, and, in all, was strongly and warmly supported by his Government. It might be said that the local commission of organization was really the Russian Government acting through him.

As president, he had charge of the invitations, and during the interval of five years he sent many letters and circulars explaining the preparations in progress, solicited reports on the questions of the programme and the sending of exhibits to the exposition.

A selection from these circulars is presented here, as well as extracts from his address relative to the object of the congress.

The following circular letter was sent principally to those who assisted in, or sent papers to, the Congress of Rome:

COMMITTEE OF ORGANIZATION OF THE
FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PENITENTIARY CONGRESS,
St. Petersburg, December 31, 1888—(January 12, 1889).

HONORED SIR: Though the programme of questions which will be discussed in the coming International Prison Congress has been published in the bulletin of the commission, we take the liberty to address you personally, making a direct appeal for your valuable coöperation in treating one of the questions in the capacity of reporter. If, as we hope, you will accept these duties, please advise us, indicating the question you have chosen and the time when you think you will be able to deliver the manuscript, which will be printed in the bulletin of the International Penitentiary Commission. A separate impression of these reports will be made in sufficient numbers for distribution among members of the congress, and there will be given to the authors twenty to thirty copies free, and others should they desire.

Should you wish to collect statistical and other information, which you may judge necessary to elucidate the question you have chosen, we undertake to send such interrogatories as you may make to different countries, to the members of the permanent penitentiary commission, or to its correspondents.

M. GALKINE-WRASKOY.

The commission of organization hopes that you will assist at the congress, and that all reporters, especially, will come to St. Petersburg. At the same time it is understood that in accepting the task of writing a report upon one or another of the questions of the programme no one engages to undertake the voyage. The commission of organization will be obliged to all who contribute in one way or another to the preparatory work of the congress, but it will be yet more grateful if all those to whom this appeal is addressed will accept the invitation to take part in the congress.

The congress, as you are aware, honored sir, meets in 1890 in St. Petersburg at the beginning of June, the epoch of the anniversary of the death of John Howard, who died at Cherson, January 20, 1790. The day for the opening of the congress has not been definitely named. The details will be communicated to you in time, as well as other necessary information, such as the facilities for the journey, which will be accorded to strangers who favor us with their presence. We can already say to you that for facilities and conveniences of travel and for the sojourn in Russia, the commission of organization will adopt the programme followed when the International Statistical Congress was in St. Petersburg, which was generally satisfactory to the members of that reunion.

We profit by this occasion to recall the fact that when the reunion of the International Prison Commission was held in Berne in 1885, M. Beltrania-Scalia, one of the commissioners, announced that the managers of the "Rivista di Discipline Carcerarie" proposed to put in competition for the congress of St. Petersburg a penitentiary question and to allow for this purpose the sum of 2,000 francs, which will be placed in the hands of a jury to compensate the author of the memoir to whom the award is made. The prize will be awarded at the coming congress and the memoir will be published in the proceedings of the Congress of St. Petersburg.

The International Penitentiary Commission expresses its sincere thanks to Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, director of the "Rivista," to whom belongs the honor of initiating this generous proposition.

It is possible that this example will be followed by prison societies and similar associations, as well as by individuals, and that in this way a number of questions will find their solution at the prison Congress of St. Petersburg.

On its part, the committee of organization, considering the wish expressed in the International Prison Commission, has decided:

1. To offer a prize for the best essay on the life and work of John Howard.

2. To organize an international exposition of the products of the labor of prisoners undergoing cellular imprisonment, also for correctional establishments devoted to young delinquents. There shall be admitted in one section of the exposition all objects manufactured in shops, which Governments desire to exhibit to show the progress realized in their country since the Congress of Rome.

3. The commission of organization also proposes to give, during the congress, by the men most qualified in the science of penology, a series of public conferences upon the historical development and actual condition of penal legislation, of the discipline of prisons, and the means for preventing crime.

4. The commission of organization has considered it desirable to inform the members of the congress as to the state of prison architecture and the method of transportation of prisoners in Russia. To this end it will prepare a collection of plans of Russian prisons, ancient and modern, designs representing station houses, wagons, transportation boats, etc., serving for the transportation of prisoners.

In a word, the commission of organization will neglect nothing to interest as much as possible those persons who assist in the congress, and to render their sojourn in Russia agreeable.

But as our principal end is to render the results of the congress as fruitful and practicable as possible, we need the assistance of all the eminent men who met at Rome, Stockholm, and London, or who, not being able to attend those meetings, have

labored to realize the object we seek. The committee of organization addresses you personally, honored sir, and counts on your valuable assistance and on your intelligent coöperation.

We thank you in advance, and present you, honored sir and colleague, with the assurance of our high consideration.

In the name of the commission of organization.

GALKINE-WRASKOY,
President.

Fourth International Penitentiary Congress of St. Petersburg, 1890.

ST. PETERSBURG, *March* 28 (*April* 9), 1889.

To the Direction of the Correctional Establishment
of ——— ———:

To the Director:

The commission of organization of the approaching International Penitentiary Congress, which will take place at the beginning of June, 1890, proposes to organize an international exposition of objects relating to correctional establishments devoted to young delinquents, and to vicious, vagabond, and abandoned children.

This exposition is for the purpose of presenting to the eyes of those who take part in the congress the organization and interior life of typical institutions of different countries and the results obtained.

Desiring earnestly that the institution in your charge will participate in this exposition, we take the liberty to send you the accompanying interrogatories, asking you to accede to our wishes and to reply favorably to our requests.

Finally, to render participation in this exposition as little burdensome as possible to the exhibitors, the committee of organization charges itself with all the expenses of transportation, coming and going, so that the establishments which reply to the interrogatories and send to St. Petersburg the objects and documents indicated in the annexed, will not be required to pay the expenses.

It is with great confidence that the commission of organization addresses you this invitation. It has a strong hope that you will not decline to give your valuable assistance, and that you will contribute to organize this exposition, which will afford a comparative study of the best organized correctional establishments in the different countries of the civilized world.

Please, in acknowledging the receipt of this, to indicate to us the approximate time of sending the answers to the interrogatories and the objects you design for the exposition. Accept, Mr. Director, the assurance of our most distinguished consideration.

In the name of the commission of organization of the Fourth International Penitentiary Congress.

GALKINE-WRASKOY,
Chief of the General Administration of Prisons,
Place of the Theater Alexander, St. Petersburg.

Address of his excellency Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, delegate from Russia, president of the International Penitentiary Commission, at a session of that body in Geneva, September 30, 1889.

GENTLEMEN and DEAR COLLEAGUES: First let me thank you very sincerely for responding to our appeal and meeting us at this conference. Several of our members have announced with regret their inability to join us, but most of them declare that they assent in advance to all that will be decided, in view of the success of the work you have undertaken, and the mission you have to carry forward.

I am greatly rejoiced to welcome you, but this joy is clouded by the thought of the

two losses we have sustained in our number since our reunion in Berne. I refer to the death of Almquist [inspector-general of the prisons of Sweden] and Holtzendorf [baron, professor at the University of Munich and former vice president of the commission]. You knew both and learned to love and respect them. Baron Holtzendorf was the soul of the commission; it was he who had inspired its organization, and now that he is no more he leaves a void which would be difficult to fill.

In the journey which I made in last January with the view to accelerate the advance of the preparatory work of the congress, I visited Munich and found all very confident in the future of our work. Assured there, I continued my journey, which was not finished when I heard the sad news of the death of the baron. Our executive committee, on behalf of the commission, has sent letters of condolence to the two mourning families. Desiring to-day to render homage to the memory of our brothers I invite you to rise. * * *

Let us pass on to the subject of our reunion. Though detailed reports of the management will be communicated to you I consider it my duty at this time to refer to some of the preparatory work. First, in regard to the material for discussion. There are ninety-eight reports named in the programme, and at this date only thirty-two have been received. There may be some to supply, and I urge you to insist that the reporters hasten to send their papers. The second point to which I desire equally to draw your attention concerns the penitentiary exposition. The invitation to take part in this exposition was made by me in the name of the commission of organization (circular, January 12, 1889), and then by the Imperial Government. My circular of January 12 contains all the information necessary on the industrial exposition. Special and detailed interrogatories have been sent to correctional institutions, public and private. The object is to assure the success of the special exposition of all that relates to correctional education. But aside from some isolated responses we have not yet the assurance of a large and general participation in this work, of which the interest seems to be unanimously recognized. We doubt not the favorable welcome which our invitation has had from high Governments, but as time presses we are anxious to have the information necessary, so that we may do all that may be to satisfy every one.

We offer to pay the expenses of transportation, going and coming, on objects for the exposition.

For our use we have the building for military purposes in which were installed the expositions which have taken place in St. Petersburg. The space at our disposal is 5,000 square metres.

We should know what space we have to reserve for each of the exhibitors and to fix the time when the articles should arrive at their destination.

Taking into consideration the climate of St. Petersburg we have fixed for the opening of the congress the 3d (15th) of June, 1890. Consequently the objects for the exposition should be sent not later than May 1, but in order to systematize the work of opening and to prevent delay in the publication of the catalogue we request the exhibitors to send us a list of the articles at least by April 1. Relative to the catalogue I will say that we desire to render it as instructive as possible, and to this end we propose to insert all information on the exhibits as set forth in my circular of January 12. Consequently it is urgent that you send us this information with the list of the products. We desire also to obtain from you the continuation of the publications which were commenced for the Congress of Rome; notably the notices upon the development of the penal and prison system of your country from the time of the Congress of Rome until the present and a list of new works relative to prisons for the same period. But above all I desire to call your attention to the question of international penitentary statistics. To this end I propose to send a circular to all the members of the commission and to the official delegates named by the different Governments.

We request your kind approval in addressing special invitations to the congress. This list should include:

1. The official delegates.

2. Persons eminent in penal and penitentiary science, whose presence would do honor to the congress, and persons distinguished by their practical experience, whose assistance would be useful in the congress.

We ask you to name these persons and authorize us to extend the invitations. The persons you indicate will receive personal cards, which will extend all facilities possible. We have obtained from the railroads of Russia a reduction of 50 per cent. and some steps have been taken through diplomatic sources to obtain a reduction of fares on foreign railroads.

Having set forth these steps, we hope that you will do all you can in your own countries to secure favorable responses. We should also examine a question, which I have already made the subject of my circular of April 9, 1889, whether there should be, as in preceding congresses, a charge for admission. The commission of organization has been disposed to accord free access to the congress, but has withheld a decision, leaving it to the International Penitentiary Commission to decide this question.

You have already been informed of the international competition opened by the Russian Government (a prize of 2,000 francs) for the best essay on the work of John Howard in prison reform, and also of the prize (in the same amount) offered by our eminent colleague M. Beltrani-Scalia, in behalf of his journal, La Revista di Discipline Carceraie. The idea of competition for a prize proposed by M. Beltrani-Scalia at our session in Berne has been followed, as you will remember, by another proposition by our esteemed secretary-general, to organize public conferences on the principal questions of penology. The proposition has likewise been adopted. We expect a brilliant success from these conferences, and you will expect this when I tell you that MM. Beltrani-Scalia, De Jagemann, De Liszt, and Koni, one of my countrymen, will severally act as president at the sessions.

In reference to the sojourn of the members of congress at St. Petersburg, we will have the honor, in due time, to do everything possible for their assistance.

At present I can announce that the members of the congress who receive personal cards of invitation will be invited to visit Moscow and take part in the jubilee of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the most ancient reformatory institution in Russia, the asylum of Roukavichnikoff. As a general rule in Russia only semi-centennial jubilees are celebrated, but His Majesty the Emperor, desiring to render homage to the congress, which has assumed the task to consider especially questions of correctional education, has graciously been pleased to make an exception to this regulation.

Finland also invites the members of the congress to an excursion to Helsingfors.

Finally, following the example of the Congress of Rome, commemorative medals will be presented to the members of congress.

Such in brief are the observations which I have to present to you and the points I wish to bring out before receiving the report on the order of business.

Again I extend to you a cordial welcome and declare opened the session for 1889.

Circular relative to international statistics of correctional institutions.

ST. PETERSBURG, *October* 1, 1889.

SIR AND HONORED COLLEAGUE: You are not ignorant that one of the questions considered by the International Prison Congress was the organization of a system of international penitentiary statistics. The efforts which have been made in this direction by our eminent colleague M. Beltrani-Scalia are too well known to urge its importance.

But as the statistics prepared by M. Beltrani-Scalia have not been followed by other similar publications, the illustrious author has called the attention of the committee of organization of the Fourth International Penitentiary Congress to the necessity of beginning this work, of which the importance has been unanimously recognized. In continuation of this work the commission has inserted in the programme of the congress the question relating to international penitentiary statistics, and M. Beltrani-Scalia has kindly charged himself with reporting thereon to the congress.

Earnestly hoping that the resolutions of the Congress of St. Petersburg, by report on statistics, will give favorable and practical results in this branch of the study of comparative penology, the commission in the mean time, without waiting for the resolutions of the congress, can make an effort in international penitentiary statistics which will find its place in the proceedings of the congress. The subject of this effort has already been indicated by the special attention that the commission has given to the questions relative to young delinquents and vicious and abandoned children. A special exposition, richly provided with information and embracing all that pertains to the management of correctional institutions, will facilitate, I hope, for the specialists met at St. Petersburg the comparative study of the success which has been obtained in this vast and fertile branch of penitentiary reform. If, along with a full description of this exposition, there can be inserted in the proceedings of the congress the international statistics of correctional institutions for 1889, we may rejoice in having attained a result worthy of the illustrious assembly which meets at St. Petersburg in 1890.

These considerations have led the commission to send you the enclosed questions, urging you, most honored colleague, to please supply the statistics relative to the year 1889, and to send them to us or bring them at the opening of the Congress.

The commission hopes that you will fully enter into these views and save it from seeing in an international publication the omission of the correctional establishments of your country.

Please, sir, and most honored colleague, accept the assurance of my high regards.

GALKINE-WRASKOY.

CIRCULAR.

To the members of the International Prison Commission and to official delegates.

ST. PETERSBURG, *October* 15, 1889.

SIR AND HONORED COLLEAGUE: I have the honor to send you the proceedings of the sessions of the commission held in Geneva September 30 and October 1 and 2 last, for completing, with the commission on organization, the arrangements to insure the success of the coming International Prison Congress.

This success is certain if the commission of organization is actively seconded by all official delegates and by all persons interested in the enterprise.

You will see by the accompanying documents that the number of reporters has reached a figure relatively high, and this is a subject of congratulation. At the same time it is important that the reports should be delivered, if possible, before the day fixed, either before the end of the year—those which must be translated and those which are written in French before February 1.

We urge you to recommend to your countrymen, who are in the list of reporters, to hasten their work as much as possible.

Although an invitation to take part in the work of the congress and to assist in person has been sent to all who assisted in former congresses, the commission of organization has proposed to address a list of persons who in each country have acquired a just celebrity in penal and penitentiary science and in the domain of the prevention of crime. The International Penitentiary Commission is favorable to this

idea, and we request you to communicate to us the names and titles of your countrymen who should appear in this list. A special invitation will be addressed to them.

Among the exhibits proposed for the congress, those which relate to correctional education, especially for young men and young girls, have received general assent, judging from the information we have received from different countries and the number of institutions of this kind preparing to send to St. Petersburg all documents capable of giving a correct idea of their organization and the results obtained.

We desire to have you obtain a list of establishments in your country which will take part in the special exposition of reform schools. We take the liberty to recommend to you especially this exposition, and wish you to assist the directors of these establishments, so that the exposition from your country will be as complete as possible, and that the list of articles and the exhibits themselves be sent, if possible, before the dates indicated.

We draw your attention to the accompanying circular, which goes with the interrogatories relative to the statistics of correctional establishments. We recommend this inquiry to your careful attention, to the end that we may be able to group all the information we receive and to publish in the proceedings of the congress the international statistics of houses of correction especially devoted to young men and young girls. These statistics will complete the work which will be elaborated on the exhibits of these institutions.

For the purpose of facilitating the journey to St. Petersburg of those who attend the congress and whom we desire to assist at this reunion, we have requested and obtained upon all the lines of railroad in Russia a reduction of 50 per cent. upon the cost of tickets. It is desirable that a reduction be also accorded by the railroad companies of other countries and steamboats on the Baltic. Permit us to call your attention to this point and to the discussion of this question in the proceedings of the commission.

We urge you to use your influence to overcome all difficulties foreseen and to aid us in all steps to be taken to arrive at the desired result.

We hope you will find in your country some persons who will take part, first, in the competition for the prize offered by the Imperial Government of Russia upon the rôle of John Howard in the history of prison reform, and secondly in the competition for the prize offered by the direction of the "Rivisita di discipline carcerie" upon the following question: "What has been, in the divers states of the civilized world, the historical development of institutions designed for the correctional education of minors convicted for common offenses, and imprisoned for the purpose of paternal correction or for idleness, mendicity, and vagabondage?"

Although the fact of this competition for prizes has received great publicity, it may be that those persons who are able to treat one or the other of these questions have no knowledge concerning them, and we request you to communicate the programme to all those who, in your country, might place themselves on the list as competitors. We earnestly desire that the competition will secure the sending of numerous and interesting works on the subjects named.

Dear sir and honored colleague, please accept the assurance of my very high consideration.

GALKINE-WRASKOY.

THE SUBJECTS AND THE REPORTERS AS LAST ANNOUNCED.

SECTION I.—*Legislation.*

1. By what process and to what extent can there be secured for the different countries the same designation and precise definition of violations of penal law to be used in acts or treaties of extradition?

Reporters.—Dr. W. Starke, superior private counselor of the minister of justice in Berlin; Joseph Reynaud, chief of the bureau of the minister of the interior (France),

secretary of the superior council of prisons, and member of the French delegation to the International Penitentiary Congress of Rome in 1885; Dr. Engleman, professor of the University of Dorpat; Dr. Lammasch, professor of penal law in the University of Vienna, Austria; Emile Brusa, professor of penal law in the University of Turin; W. Spasowicz, doctor of laws and advocate, St. Petersburg.

2. In what manner can drunkenness be regarded in penal legislation, first, either as an offense in itself, or, second, as an incident added to the offense, neutralizing, extenuating, or aggravating the character of the crimes?

Reporters.—De Lilienthal, professor of criminal law in Zurich; the committee of the society against the abuse of alcoholic beverages, Baden; Dr. K. von Stoesser, president of the senate at Carlsruhe; Dr. Fischer, and Charles Baer, counselor of the court of appeals, Carlsruhe; E. Jacquin, counselor of state (France), director of criminal affairs and pardons, and delegate of the minister of justice to the congress in Rome; Tancred Canonico, senator of the Kingdom of Italy; De Rohland, professor of the university of Dorpat; Dr. L. Fuld, advocate of the court of Mayence; Dr. Isidore Baumgarten, deputy procurer royal at Buda-Pesth; Dr. Jules Fekete, judge of the royal tribunal at Aran yos Marat, Hungary; Private Counselor Heinze, professor at the University of Heidelberg.

3. Would it be practicable to establish the teaching of penitentiary science? And by what means can there be added to this the practical study of facts and questions of application without disturbing the operations of the service or prejudicing the character of the administration?

Reporters.—Dr. de Jagemann, ministerial counselor, Carlsruhe; Prof. Cæsar Lombroso, Henri Joly, Ivan Foinitsky, and I. Lacointa.

4. For what violations of criminal law, under what conditions, and to what extent would it be practicable to provide by legislation for, first, a system of admonitions or remonstrances addressed by the judge to the offender in the place of any punishment, or, second, the mode of suspension of a punishment, whether the penalty be a fine or imprisonment or any other that the judge might pronounce, but which he declares should not be applied to the guilty as long as he does not incur a new conviction?

Reporters.—Professor Wulfert, of Moscow; F. Dreyfus, advocate, former deputy and member of the French delegation to the congress of Rome; Dr. de Kirchenheim, professor at the University of Heidelberg; Henri Pessina, professor of penal law at the University of Naples and senator of the Kingdom; Raphael Garofalo, deputy procurer of the King, Naples; Dr. de Liszt, professor at the University of Marburg; Dr. Gustave Kautz, royal councilor and director of the Academy of Jurisprudence at Györ, Hungary; Wladimirow, professor at the University of Kharkow.

5. By what authority should the disposition of delinquent children be determined, and upon what particulars and after what principles should it be decided whether the offenses should entail, first, either a penal sentence and confinement in a prison so-called, or, second, commitment to a correctional establishment especially for vicious or incorrigible children, or, third, commitment to an educational institution designed for pupils placed under the guardianship of the State?

Ought the ages alone of the children to be considered in order to effect division and to determine the decision, and, if not, what conditions should regulate the classification?

Reporters.—G. Correvon, president of the cantonal tribunal, Lausanne; Dr. Henri Harburger, professor at the University of Munich; C. D. Randall, former State senator, and resident member of the board of control and secretary and treasurer of the state public school for dependent children, Coldwater, Mich.; Pedro Armengol y Cornet, delegate of the province of Barcelona; Antoine Marro, doctor of medicine.

6. What means can be adopted to reach effectively the habitual receivers of stolen goods?

Reporters.—Francisco Lastres, advocate, professor of law and deputy in the Span-

ish Parliament; Alfred Hill, justice of the peace at Birmingham, England; Dr. Georges Kleinfeller, professor at the University of Munich.

7. How can the pernicious influence of parents or guardians be averted from their children or wards after their conditional liberation and, in general, after the expiration of their sentence until their majority?

Reporter.—Alex de Moldenhauer, vice president of the court of Warsaw.

8. In accordance with what principles should the limits of the jurisdiction of the courts be made concerning the power to discipline for misdemeanors at common law committed by prisoners during their confinement? What misdemeanors of this kind should be judged by the courts, and which should be punished by way of discipline?

Reporters.—Professor Poustorossleff, of Moscow; Eugene Borel, doctor of laws and advocate; Danevsky, professor at the University of Kharkow; Schelkovnikoff, of Russia.

SECTION II.—*Prison discipline.*

1. Is the system of labor in prisons for the state to be preferred to the contract system?

Reporters.—Illing, private counselor to the minister of the interior at Berlin; Chicherio, director of the penitentiary of Lugano, Switzerland; Eckert, private counselor and director of the penitentiary of Fribourg, in Brisgan; L. Herbette, counselor of state, director of the administration of prisons, and chief of the French delegation to the Congress of Rome; Mucke, professor of statistics at the University of Dorpat; Tauffer, director of the central penitentiary of Bosnia and Herzegovina, at Zenica; Francois de Renzis, deputy of the Italian Parliament; Béla Atzél, director of the prisons at Nagy Enyed, Hungary; Maurice Föth, Hungary.

2. To what extent is prison labor detrimental to free labor?

How can prison labor be organized to avoid, as much as possible, competition with free labor?

(These two questions are continued from the last congress.)

Reporters.—Illing, superior private counselor, Berlin; Chicherio, director of the penitentiary of Lugano; Eckert, private counselor; L. Herbette, counselor of state and director of the administration of prisons of France; Tscatcheff, advocate, St. Petersburg; Henri Ferri, professor of penal law at the University of Sienne and deputy of Parliament; Schimanovsky, vice president of the society of jurisprudence of Odessa.

3. What privileges can be extended to prisoners in the interest of good prison discipline? Especially, to what extent is it safe to permit them to dispose of their earnings?

Reporters.—V. Hurbin, director of the penitentiary of Lenzburg, and president of the Swiss Society of Prisons; Sichart, director of the royal penitentiary of Ludwigsburg; Béla Atzél, director of the prisons at Nagy Enyed, Hungary.

4. Not including colonial transportation, what would be the best system of punishment by imprisonment, either for life or for a long time; say for exceeding 5 years, or, according to some legislation, exceeding 10 years?

What can be the nature, organization, and administration of prisons where prisoners of each of these classes are placed?

Reporters.—Pierre Nocito, professor of criminal law at the University of Rome, and deputy of Parliament; Dr. Victor Leitmaier, attorney general at Graz.

5. According to what principles and by what methods can be secured most advantageously the recruitment of prison officers, directors, inspectors, stewards, etc.?

Reporters.—Gustave Garrison, doctor of laws, former chief of the cabinet of the president of the council of ministers, member of the French delegation to the congress of Rome, secretary of the committee on conditional liberation, and of the minister of the interior; Napoleon Vazio, counselor and former director-general of prisons; Louis Laszkovzky, director of the house of correction at Kalozsvar, Hungary.

6. Can we admit that a certain class of criminals or delinquents should be con-

sidered as incorrigible, and, if so, what means should be employed to protect society against this class of convicts?

Reporters.—Dr. E. Brusa, professor of law in the University of Turin; Wahovitch, advocate at Odessa; Sichart, director of the royal prison at Ludwigsburg; Z. R. Brockway, director of the reformatory at Elmira, N. Y., and former superintendent of the Detroit, Mich., house of correction; Foinitsky, professor at the University of St. Petersburg; Jules Pauer, director of the intermediate prison at Kis-Karta, Hungary.

7. In what respect should the treatment to which the prisoner is subjected before conviction compare with that after sentence?

Reporters.—Stevens, director of the prison at Saint-Gilles, Brussels; Pedro Armengol y. Cornet, of Barcelona; Aristide Armengol-Silorata, inspector of prisons for the minister of the interior; Baron G. de Marschall, of Mannheim.

8. If means of existence can be procured for prisoners at the expiration of their sentence, it is important to establish in the prison a great diversity of labor, so that each one may be taught the work he is most adapted to. But should this be done, the prisons to some extent might become industrial establishments of a special kind, and in consequence entail incumbrance and burdensome expenses. Besides, one can readily suppose that in this diversity of labor, by its nature too easy and simple, there might be hindrance to the success of repression. Nevertheless, without limiting the kinds of labor, should there not be furnished to each prisoner work to which he is adapted?

Reporter.—M. Illing, superior private counselor, Berlin.

9. In dividing the time of an imprisonment into certain periods or classes would it be best to treat the convicts with more or less severity in accordance with the degrees of the periods or classes they are in? If in the affirmative, the regimen in the first class should be applied with severity, and then evidently the cellular system should be adopted. But to what kind of labor should preference be given?

Besides, to revert to this arrangement of periods or classes, should the time be reduced briefly where the duration of the imprisonment has already been somewhat diminished?

(This question was proposed by the Government of Japan.)

10. If for the purpose of occupying uncultivated land or for colonization a prison should be established on such lands, should there be adopted a prison régime especially different from prisons in general, treating the prisoners with less severity? If this was done would it be deemed practicable, recognizing that the prisoners sent there are those sentenced to a long term, to have them undergo a prison régime of special order and to treat them severely during a given time in the prisons of the interior before their definite transportation to the prison in question?

(Question proposed by the Government of Japan.)

11. Is the compilation of international penitentiary statistics useful? Is it practicable? If yes, what should be the limit? After what system should it be done?

Reporters.—M. Beltrani-Scalia, director-general of the prisons of Italy; Dr. W. Starke, superior private counselor, Berlin; Yvernes, chief of division, with the minister of justice, Paris; F. J. Monat, M. D., former director of the prisons of Bengal and member of the Royal Statistical Society, London.

SECTION III.—*Preventive measures.*

1. Might not patronage or prisoners' aid societies be established between one country and another and made profitable by an exchange of experiences, and by following up discharged convicts until their return home to an honest life of labor, irrespective of the nationality of the prisoner, as well as to facilitate the return of any to their own country, and to inform their friends at home concerning them? In what manner could these relations between institutions and societies of patronage of different countries be established to produce the best results?

Reporters.—Fuchs, president of the central committee of the societies of patronage of the Grand Duchy of Baden at Carlsruhe; Riggenbach, chaplain of the penitentiary of Bâle.

2. Is there not a unity of interests and questions between prison officers charged with the management of prisons and their dependencies? And is not an exchange of information, a harmony of views, and a general concord of action, necessary between them?

How can this exchange of information, this harmony of views and this general concord of action be established without prejudice to independence, to good order, and to the efficiency of the public service?

Reporters.—Hardouin, honorary counselor of the court of appeals of Douai, and member of the French delegation to the Congress of Rome; W. M. F. Round, secretary of the Prison Association of New York.

3. Does the system of placing children in families present advantages to assure the education, employment, and the future welfare of those children who are placed for various reasons under the guardianship of the state?

To what extent and in what manner could there be substituted for this system for dependent children the placing of them in an establishment collectively, or by combining the two systems?

Reporters.—Dr. H. Harburger, professor of the University of Munich. Doukhowskoy, professor of Moscow. Fuchs, counselor at Carlsruhe. Felix Voisin, former prefect of police, former deputy, counselor, and member of the French delegation to the Congress of Rome. Dr. L. Fuld, advocate at the court of Mayence. Emmanuel-Paul Gacil, director of the house of correction at Aszód, Hungary.

4. To fully accomplish their mission, should not prisoners' aid societies interest themselves concerning the needs of the families of prisoners undergoing sentence, either to insure the maintenance of family affections or to assist the families themselves and to protect them from the consequences incident to the imprisonment of one of their members?

How can such assistance be rendered to the family without injury to the feelings, making it profitable by securing the reformation of the prisoner and his return to labor and an honest life?

Reporters.—Pastor Kraus, chaplain of the cellular prison of Fribourg; Felix Voisin; Joseph Veratti, medical director of the prisons of Bologne; Louis Laszkovzky, director of the house of correction at Kalozvar, Hungary.

5. How can societies of patronage or prisoners' aid societies harmonize their services with those of the police and in the interests of public safety to save the liberated prisoner from relapse to crime, and society itself from new trouble and injury resulting from his acts, without directing attention to him and making him restless and disturbed in his free life?

Examine specially this question which is important to prisoners in the state of conditional liberation and held dependent on authority until the time of their definite discharge; estimating seriously the necessities of public safety and the precautions to be observed with regard to the liberated prisoner.

Reporters.—Pastor Rimensberger, president of the Cantonal Society of Patronage at Sitterdorf, Thurgovinia; Felix Voisin; Joseph Barini, chief of section to the minister of the interior; Pastor Bauer, chaplain of the prison of Fribourg.

6. By what means and in what manner can the public at large be enlightened, most correctly and effectively, on the true nature and importance, even in its relation to the public itself, of penal and prison questions, reforms and progress, studied or pursued, upon their value for the security of society and the protection of private interests, the reformation of the guilty and the general protection from social evil?

Reporters.—Pedro Armengal Y. Cornet at Barcelona. Clement Lévi, publicist.

There are other reporters whose names appeared from time to time as the pamphlet bulletins of the commission were issued. The reports already published would make

a large volume. The programme is one of the best, and the character of the reporters in each country was such as to insure most able and valuable discussions of the several important questions submitted.

COPY OF SPECIAL LETTER OF INVITATION.

COMMISSION OF ORGANIZATION OF THE
FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS,
St. Petersburg, February 1 (13), 1890.

Mr. —— ——:

HONORED SIR: In accordance with the unanimous wish expressed by the International Prison Congress of Rome, the Fourth Congress will be held in St. Petersburg the middle of June of this year.

The commission of organization, in concert with the International Prison Commission, is actively occupied in preparatory work. A programme of questions for discussion has been adopted and a number of eminent men have consented to charge themselves with the duties of reporter. All the addresses sent have been printed already, or are on their way to be, and will constitute a rich literature which will serve as the basis for discussion. An international penitentiary exposition will be opened simultaneously with the congress and will demonstrate in three respective divisions the results obtained in the different countries by the industrial régime of cellular prisons, prisons in common, as well as by the reformatory education of young delinquents and vicious and abandoned children. Besides this, there is projected a series of conferences held by eminent savants. These are intended to enlighten the general public upon the present condition of the principal penological and prison problems.

But in order that the efforts made shall assure the success of the Fourth International Prison Congress in serious and practical results, we need the assistance and presence in the congress of those who, like yourself, have become unquestioned authority in the domain of penal and reformatory science and in that of the prevention of crime. The commission of organization, in its own name and that of the commission of the International Prison Congress, takes the liberty, respectfully, to address to you a cordial and pressing invitation to honor the Congress of St. Petersburg with your presence and to take part in the discussions called out by the questions of the programme.

The coming reunion of the International Prison Congress will also furnish to all those who labor in the same domain an occasion to renew or to create personal relations and to prepare the ground which will some day serve to secure the unity of ideas in penal and reformatory science. A reduction of 50 per cent. on the railroads of Russia has been obtained by the committee of organization, and facilities of the same kind have been accorded by some of the other railroads of Europe.

In sending you herewith the programme of the questions for discussion and a notice of the favors secured from the railroad authorities of Europe, we request you to honor us with a reply, that we may know whether we should send you a ticket of admission to the congress.

In the hope that you will accede to our wishes and will accept our invitation, we pray you to accept, most honored sir, the assurance of our most distinguished consideration.

GALKINE-WRASKOY,
The President.

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS OF ST. PETERSBURG, 1890.

NOTICE.

Upon the accommodations granted by the railroad authorities to the members of the congress and for the transportation of objects for the International Prison Commission. Responses received up to February 1 (13), 1890.

Belgium.—The members of the congress will receive on the railroads of the state, on the whole line to the frontier, as well as on shorter routes, a reduction of 50 per cent. on the usual cost of tickets. This reduction is granted for express or ordinary trains. The objects intended for the exposition will be transported on the railroads of the state, according to the special rate conditions No. 10, to wit: The objects should be directed to the president of the commission of organization; on return they should be accompanied with a special booking office ticket, having the stamp of the exposition. To obtain the benefit of free transportation the sending and returning should be by the same route.

Denmark.—A reduction of 50 per cent. on the railroad rates will be granted for both the members of the congress and for the transportation of objects for the exposition.

Italy.—The same railroad accommodations will be extended as in exceptional cases.

Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony.—No special privilege will be allowed to the members of the congress; but those who go to the congress in groups of not less than 30 can have the privilege extended to travelers in general—a rebate in the rates of 50 per cent. As to objects sent to the exposition, their return will be gratuitous on the condition that the exhibitors prove by the shipping bill in going and by the certificate of the director of the exhibition that the objects were exhibited at St. Petersburg without having been sold; and further, that the return be made within four weeks after the close of the exposition and by the same route the goods were sent.

Portugal.—A reduction of 50 per cent. for both members of the congress and for objects sent to the exposition will be accorded by the railroads.

Sweden and Norway.—The same facilities will be granted by the railroads of the United Kingdom. In Norway they are limited to the following lines: Christiania to Charlottenburg, Christiania to Frederickshald, Christiania to Storlier, and vice versa. To enjoy these facilities in Norway a card of indentification will be taken from the chief of the bureau of prison affairs, of the minister of justice, and of the police of Christiania.

A LETTER FROM THE CHIEF OF THE PRISON ADMINISTRATION OF RUSSIA.

COMMISSION OF ORGANIZATION OF THE
FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS,
St. Petersburg, February 17 (*March* 1), 1890.

HONORED SIR: I have had the pleasure of receiving your kind letter of the 8th of February and I pray you to accept my thanks. It is with great interest that I await the appearance of your work on the international prison congresses and the prison system of my country. To complete the materials you possess, permit me to present you a copy of the report on the work of the general administration of the prisons of Russia during the decennial period from 1879 to 1889. The French translation of this work is not completed and I can only send you the Russian version, but I hope that you will find some one who can make at least some extracts for you.

Permit me also to send you the inclosed letter of invitation to our congress.

In the hope of having the honor of seeing you in St. Petersburg, please accept the assurance of my high consideration.

GALKINE-WRASKOY.

Mr. C. D. RANDALL.

PRINCE ALEXANDRE PETROVITCH D'OLDENBURG,
HONORARY PRESIDENT OF THE CONGRESS.

MEETING OF THE CONGRESS IN ST. PETERSBURG.

PRELIMINARY.

The Fourth International Prison Congress was held in St. Petersburg in June, 1890. The attendance at the congresses of London, Stockholm, and Rome had proved the extended interest that penology aroused in our times among specialists and statesmen. It was believed that this interest had increased with each congress on the part of the governments and the public, so that the attendance at St. Petersburg would be greater than at the others. Those who were acquainted with the character of the congresses knew well that the body was not composed of simple theorists, sentimental, and animated by a false philanthropy. They knew the members to be practical men, who were living constantly face to face with the dreary facts of pauperism and crime with which they had so much to do, and were engaged in the protection of society against those dangerous forces. They knew these men were seeking the best means of preventing crime, not only by the reformation of prisoners but by the protection and good education of abandoned, dependent, or ill-treated children, and by improved legislation to aid in securing the ends sought.

The public sentiment so favorable towards the congress has not only retained in the work the governments which have heretofore adhered to the International Prison Congress organization, but has influenced other governments to come into the association. The United States has been represented in each congress, but it has not joined the organization and consequently has not paid any of the expenses of the congresses of Rome and St. Petersburg as other nations have. This would have required a special appropriation, and no effort appears to have been made in that direction. The interest in the congress of St. Petersburg was shown by the large number of representatives from the various countries who came as official delegates of their governments and from societies, associations, and other bodies interested in social science, together with others from learned bodies, universities, etc.

Again, the numerous reports or documents containing extended information concerning correctional and charitable institutions, furnished in pamphlet form for distribution from so many countries, were another evidence of the attention the subject everywhere attracted.

Nor should the permanent exposition of prison construction and prison labor be forgotten. It was worthy of great attention and study by all, and will be described briefly in this report. In view of these facts, and that important and interesting questions had been submitted for the consideration of the assembly, it was expected that the debates would open under most favorable auspices, and that the Fourth International Prison Congress in St. Petersburg would mark an important step in the advance of prison reform.

From the time of entering Russia, until the return, during all the sessions and the excursions, the attention, assistance and courtesies of the commission of organization and of the Imperial Government were everywhere present to make the sojourn of the members in Russia interesting and agreeable. This was first noticed at the border, the emperor having issued an order that the luggage of the members was not to be examined by the custom-house officers. Every facility was afforded members for visiting penal, reformatory, and other public institutions and interesting places. All through the stay in Russia the cordial friendship of the Russians, personal and official, was everywhere present by many courtesies and material aid to add to the interest and pleasure of all, and to further the work of the congress. Under these favorable auspices the congress convened. The preparations of the international prison commissioners had been ample and all arrangements made by them were admirably executed. It is no disparagement to other able workers to say that the general secretary of the commission, M. Guillaume, of Berne, Switzerland, who was also the general secretary of the congress, should be especially credited for his invaluable labors in the organization of the congress, and in its operations generally. Recognizing this the emperor has presented him with a very interesting and valuable testimonial.

At the head of the commission of organization was Galkine-Wraskoy, the chief of the Russian prison administration. The arrangements made by this commission were everything that could be desired, and its distinguished chief was everywhere present, attentive and cordial to all, and by his fine executive abilities forwarded the labors of the congress. All the commission had promised was more than fulfilled. Under all these favorable circumstances there was every reason why the sessions of the congress should be interesting and valuable.

REGULATIONS FOR THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

ARTICLE 1. The congress will open June 15, 1890.

ART. 2. Only the following will be admitted to take part in the work of the congress.

(*a*) Official delegates sent by governments.

(*b*) High officials in prison administration.

(*c*) Professors of criminal law in the universities.

(*d*) Delegates from prison societies.

(*e*) Persons invited by the commission; notably those who are known by their works on penitentiary science, officers of prisons and reform schools, and presidents of patronage societies, etc.

ART. 3. No one will be admitted to the sessions of the general assembly unless he presents a card at the entrance.

ART. 4. A provisional bureau is formed from the members of the international commission. The members of this commission meet at a place fixed 4 days before the opening of the congress.

ART. 5. The assembly in its first reunion will verify the authority of the members, will name definitely its bureau, and arrange the order of business. The members

who are admitted will receive a personal card on payment of 5 rubles as an entrance subscription.

ART. 6. The members will separate for preparatory work into three sections, respectively charged with provisionally finding and submitting to the general assembly the solution of the questions of the programme.

ART. 7. Division into sections.

First section—Penal legislation.

Second section—Penitentiary institutions.

Third section—Preventive institutions.

ART. 8. Each member may designate the section to which he desires to belong. At the same time each member may take part in the work of any of the sections.

ART. 9. Each section names its officers and selects one or several reporters charged with presenting their written reports to the sessions of the general assembly.

ART. 10. All reports, documents, notes, and propositions relating to the work of the congress are distributed to the sections to which they belong.

ART. 11. The sections meet daily at 9 a. m. precisely, in the places assigned.

ART. 12. The general assembly meets daily at 2 p. m. in the hall of its sessions, unless otherwise notified by the president.

ART. 13. The members will sign each day the presence list at the entrance of the section.

ART. 14. The president has charge of the sessions and the direction of the debates. He prescribes the order of the day and supervises the officers.

ART. 15. The general assembly votes after discussion upon the conclusions submitted by the reporters. Every proposal to amend the conclusions should be drawn, written, and signed by its author, supported by 5 members, at least, in the bureau which submits it to the assembly.

ART. 16. Unless otherwise decided by the assembly, the vote will be taken *viva voce*.

ART. 17. The votes are received by countries and classes in alphabetical order.

ART. 18. No one is permitted to vote except official delegates and members invited by the international commission, whose authority has been submitted to the formality required by Art. 5 of the regulations.

ART. 19. The secretaries, either of the general assembly or of the sections, will record the proceedings, which will contain the order of the day, the subject discussed, and the results of the vote.

ART. 20. No proposition not in the programme, nor the reading of any paper or memoir, can be had without the consent of the division.

ART. 21. The order of the day or the previous question can always be demanded.

ART. 22. No address shall occupy over 15 minutes. This rule is not applicable to the reporters.

ART. 23. Though the French language is preferred for the discussions, yet the members may speak in other languages, in which case their words will be at the time translated by one of the secretaries.

ART. 24. At the opening of each session one of the secretaries will announce the publications, memoirs, papers, and other works presented to the congress relative to the questions treated. These documents can be, according to a decision of the commission, reproduced either in full or by analysis or extract, according to the case, in the proceedings of the congress.

ART. 25. To secure correctness and a prompt publication of the proceedings, the speakers are requested to send to the commission, with as little delay as possible, the substance of their discourses, or at least notes of the discussion, to aid those preparing the material for publication. The proceedings will be published in the French language.

THE PROGRAMME.

Friday, June 13.—Reunion of the members of the International Prison Commission and other official delegates at the city hall for the address of welcome by the mayor of St. Petersburg. Report of his excellency Galkine-Wraskoy upon the labors of the commission since the session at Geneva in September, 1889, and discussion of the objects and the order of the day.

At 8 o'clock in the evening social reunion of the members of the congress in the parlors of the first floor of the Hotel d'Europe, entrance on Michael street. These rooms, set apart for the use of the commission, will be open every day, and will serve as a rendezvous for the members. It is there they will find copies of the reports presented upon the questions of the programme.

This place will be open every evening after 8 o'clock for social reunions, when members can see each other and become better acquainted.

Saturday, June 14.—At 11 o'clock precisely, presentation of official delegates to his highness Prince d'Oldenburg, the honorary president of the congress. Visit to his excellency Mr. Dournovo, minister of the interior, and to his excellency Mr. de Giers, minister of foreign affairs. From 2 to 6 o'clock will be devoted to visiting different prisons of the capital; the Correctional prison (Litovsky-Zamok); the new cellular prison (Viborg); the prison for young convicts (Arsenal street); the prison for prevention (Schpalernaïa); and the municipal prison (Cosaque). At 8 p. m., social meeting at the place named.

Sunday, June 15.—At 1 p. m., in the grand hall of the assembly of the nobility, solemn opening of the congress. [The official delegates are requested to enter by stairway No. 5, and to take places reserved. All other members should enter by the principal stairway, No. 4. They are requested not to leave the hall before the conclusion of the ceremonies.] On this day the exposition will not be opened before 3 o'clock. [Notice: Dress for the ceremony, black coat, white cravat, and decorations.] The members are requested to be present at the hour indicated. Discourse by the honorary president. The opening of the exposition.

At 9 p. m., in the grand hall of the nobility, public conference on John Howard, given by Mr. Spasowitch, advocate and former professor of law. [Dress: black coat and white cravat.] At the close of the conference the members of the congress are invited by Mr. Likhatchew, mayor of St. Petersburg, to a soirée in the city hall.

Monday, June 16.—At 10 a. m. precisely, meeting of the members in their respective sections in the first floor of the Palace of the Nobility, to proceed to the nomination of officers and to fix the order of the day for the sessions. At 11 a. m., general assembly in the grand hall of the palace, to proceed to the election of the officers. At 2 p. m., commencement of the discussions on the order of the day. At 8 p. m., pub-

lic conference on prison reform, given by M. Tancred Canonico, senator of the Kingdom of Italy.

Tuesday, June 17.—At 9 a. m., second session of the sections; continuation of the order of the day. At 2 p. m., general assembly and reports on the work of the sections. At 8 p. m., public conference on measures for the prevention of crime, given by Dr. Eugene de Jagemann, ministerial counselor of Carlsruhe.

Wednesday, June 18.—9 a. m., meeting of the three sections. Three p. m., meeting of the general assembly. Eight p. m., social meeting, usual place.

Thursday, June 19.—9 a. m., meeting of the sections. At 2 p. m., general session. At 8 p. m., social meeting.

Friday, June 20.—9 a. m., meeting of the sections. At 2 p. m., general assembly. At 8 p. m., social meeting.

Saturday, June 21.—9 a. m., public conference on prevention of crime, added to the program by C. D. Randall, official delegate from the United States of America. Session of the sections. At 2 p. m., general assembly. At 8 p. m., public conference, by Mr. Herbette, on the study of penitentiary questions.

Monday, June 23.—10 a. m., meet at the Palace of the Nobility for an excursion to the reformatory colony of St. Petersburg. Nine p. m., session of the International Prison Commission.

Tuesday, June 24.—General meeting and close of the congress, to be followed by excursions to Finland and Moscow.

This programme was, in the main, carried out. Instead of evening social meetings named, there were several evening banquets in honor of the congress, which will be briefly described in another place.

THE ASSISTANT REPORTERS.

The commission named the following members of the congress to act as assistant reporters. Their duty was to open the discussions by presenting an abstract of the views expressed in the various preparatory reports which had been presented and published by the commission, and in formulating a resolution which would form the basis of discussion and upon which the section would be asked to vote.

SECTION I.—*Legislative.*

First question, M. Spassovitch; second, M. Sliosberg; third, M. Milenko Wessnitch; fourth, M. Slautchevsky; fifth, Mr. Foynitsky; sixth, Mr. Golovine; seventh, Mr. Karnitski, and eighth, Mr. Tchéglovitow.

SECTION II.—*Penitentiary.*

First question, Mr. Priléjaew; second, Mr. Géorgievsky; third and fourth, Mr. Woulfert; fifth, Mr. Latischu; sixth, Mr. Spassowitch; seventh, Mr. Vérevkine, and eighth, ninth, and tenth, Mr. Foynitsky.

SECTION III.— *Preventive Institutions.*

First and second questions, Mr. Listchinsky; third, Mr. Karnitsky; fourth, Mr. Slosberg; fifth, Mr. Voisin; and sixth, Mr. Rasselli.

It was announcd that any foreign members who desired to act in the place of any of the assistant reporters could so arrange it at the reunions at the Hotel d' Europe. It should be noted that the word reporter as relates to the congress is used in a different sense than is generally understood. The reporters in the preparatory works are those who write the answers by essays to the various questions on the programme, which are published by the commission before the congress, forming the basis of the discussions, and the duties of the assistant reporters are as above defined.

MEETING OF THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON COMMISSION.

The International Prison Commission held a meeting in the city hall at 2 o'clock in the afternoon of June the 14th, with delegates from Baden, Bavaria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Norway, Russia, and Sweden, whose Governments had adopted the regulations.

The session was opened with an address by Mr. Likhatchew, a member of the imperial council and the mayor of St. Petersburg, who spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In conformity to the unanimous decision of the preceding prison congress, held in Rome, and by the gracious invitation of His Majesty our august sovereign, the Fourth International Prison Congress has assembled in St. Petersburg.

I make it my first duty to express, in the name of the municipal council of the capital, my profound appreciation of the choice of the city of St. Petersburg as the place for the reunion of the Fourth International Prison Congress. The international congress is a tribute rendered to social progress. The object of these congresses is to dispeise the imperfections and vices of our modern civilization by the light they unremittingly shed. They batter down the walls of ignorance, routine, fanaticism, and poverty, the scourges of humanity which engender crimes.

But in order that the labors of the congress should furnish the results we have a right to expect from principles so humane, so generous, and so just, which it elaborates, and that they may have a practical application, it is evident that there should be a permanent international commission to prepare and supervise the labors of the successive congresses. This task has been filled by the International Prison Commission of the fourth congress with great success. The numerous works touching the different questions which concern crime, and which have been presented to the fourth congress, prove this in a brilliant manner.

Permit me now to extend a most sincere welcome to all the learned gentlemen who have not been prevented by the difficulties and fatigues of a long journey from coming to take part in the labors of the fourth congress in St. Petersburg, and to extend the most sincere wishes of the people of St. Petersburg for the success of this great international work.

After this address, Mr. de Braunbehrens, deputy secretary of state to the minister of the interior of Prussia, spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: Permit me to thank sincerely the mayor for his cordial welcome to us all and for the noble thoughts he has expressed. We have, my colleagues and

myself, the most lively gratitude for all those who have engaged in the preparatory work of the congress. But our recognition is due first to the Imperial Government of Russia which extends this hospitality and to the delegates of that Government. I am certain that under the intelligent presidency of Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy your efforts will not lack success. For the success of his presidency, for my colleagues and myself, I extend my cordial and sincere wishes.

Following this, Mr. Wraskoy delivered this address:

GENTLEMEN AND DEAR COLLEAGUES: I do not know how to express the great pleasure I have in meeting you. With some of you our relations date from the congress of Stockholm, and with others from that of Rome. And if I have also pleasure in saluting in this assembly new members, the ties which unite us with them are not less strong, considering the interest we all have equally in the work we pursue and the end we seek. Gentlemen, I welcome you all.

Our honorable general secretary, who has for so many years devoted himself to the work of the congress with the zeal which distinguishes him, will render an account of the work of his bureau. But before I give him the floor I have the great satisfaction to communicate to you that two states, Belgium and Greece, have joined the International Prison Commission. May the other states, which are not yet represented here in our commission in a permanent manner, follow this good example and aid in consolidating and enlarging the activity of the commission.

Constantly in accord with the local commission we have endeavored to carry out strictly the programme which has been made for us, and it is for you, gentlemen, to decide whether our united efforts to assure the success of the present congress and that of the exposition have accorded with your desires.

I have some words to add relative to the exposition. The desire which has been expressed to witness especially the sections of work in common and work in the cells, as well as that which relates to correctional education, has been complied with. But besides these three sections the local commission believed it would gratify the general interest by reproducing through models and photographs the methods for transporting exiles, their dwellings, the different kinds of labor, without excepting that in the mines, desiring to present the fullest information possible relative to the prison in the island of Saghalien.

I again extend my welcome with wishes for the complete success of the congress, and request Dr. Guillaume, the secretary general, to present his report of the work of the commission.

The president invited the official delegates from Belgium and Greece to take seats with the commission. It was announced that the delegate from Spain, Mr. Don Juan de Dias de la Rada y Delgado, member of the supreme council of prisons and senator of the kingdom, had not arrived, and that he had asked to be excused for his absence.

Dr. Guillaume, the secretary general, then presented the report of the bureau of the International Prison Commission. This report showed that since the session in Geneva the activity of the bureau had been almost exclusively in the publication of the numerous preparatory works of the congress. He extended the thanks of the commission to all the reporters, and especially to the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg for its activity in the study of the questions submitted to the congress as well as for the distinguished manner in which these reporters had discharged their task by the able and valuable reports they had

submitted. The report also expressed high appreciation of the work of the commission of organization.

Mr. Pessina, senator of the Kingdom of Italy, presented a resolution to the effect that the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg be charged with naming a jury to examine the competitive works on the life and labors of John Howard, which was adopted. The number of the works to be submitted to the jury is fourteen.

Mr. Herbette, counselor of state, director of the prison administration of the French Republic, and chief of the French delegation, spoke as follows:

Mr. PRESIDENT and GENTLEMEN: I have been authorized by the International Prison Commission to thank the council of St. Petersburg, for the hospitable welcome it has given us in this great and admirable city.

We can not prevent adding to the warm thanks the mayor was pleased to express, the respectful consideration we have for the Government of His Imperial Majesty, and our profound sympathy for the eminent gentlemen who have given us such a hearty welcome.

One of the members of this meeting has spontaneously interpreted our impressions. But in that which touches the heart, and in paying a debt of gratitude, no one can omit his part. It is honorable for each to do his duty as well as he can.

Permit us, then, to fulfill a duty which gives us so much pleasure. I desire no other proof of this pleasure than the eagerness to undertake so long a journey.

Having labored for nearly five years with Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, we have the right to congratulate ourselves, and to rejoice at the rare qualities with which he unites the most happy amiability to the highest intelligence. He has known how to render this important prison work agreeable and entertaining.

In making this eulogy, which the president can not refute, since he has completed his discourse, we do not separate our attachment for him from that which is due to the noble country of which he is a delegate. Our countrymen rejoice to visit this immense Empire which carries civilization to most distant countries. We can, gentlemen, truthfully speak for you in expressing, in as discreet a manner as may be, our homage, and most respectful wish for those who have been so willing to encourage, with their powerful patronage, a labor of useful studies and of moral progress, and who have so willingly organized a congress and an exposition of which we already predict the brilliant success.

At the end of this address, at 3 o'clock, the session was closed.

RECEPTION BY PRINCE AND PRINCESS D'OLDENBURG AND THE MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR.

On Saturday, June 14, at 11 o'clock a. m., the official delegates had the honor to be presented to his highness Prince Alexander Petrovitch d'Oldenburg, the honorary president of the congress, and to his wife, her highness Princess Eugénie Maximilanovna. His excellency Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, president of the committee of organization, accompanied the members and made the presentation, which took place in the palace of the prince and princess. The members were received in a most affable manner. At the close of the audience the members left their cards for his excellency Mr. de Giers, minister of foreign affairs, who was then absent from St. Petersburg, on his estates in Finland.

The members then waited on his excellency Mr. Dournova, minister of the interior, who received them and spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: His Majesty, my Sovereign, having graciously offered his capital as the place for the reunion of the International Prison Congress, of which you have the honor to be representatives, we may rightly consider this hospitality as an evidence of his sympathy for the humane and Christian purposes of your noble work. This evidence, gentlemen, is all the more valuable as it is an expression of the sympathies of the hundred millions of Russian people. One of the great pioneers in the work you represent, the immortal Howard, found in Russia a century ago that respect and sympathy for his labors, in all classes of society, which seemed to give him encouragement.

And these, gentlemen, are not idle words, for if any of you have had the leisure to study closely the character of Russia in the details of its life and history, you will find that the dominant traits of its Christian philanthropy consist in aiding the prisoner, who for centuries has been specially termed the "unfortunate;" and wherever this unfortunate may be found within the great limit of Russia, there is no hand that would not aid him, nor any heart that would refuse him its pity.

I speak thus, gentlemen, for I am convinced that you, without doubt, agree with me that a task such as yours is infinitely more agreeable and easy to fill when it can be accomplished in the midst of the sympathies which come from all classes and from all hearts, and which surround and encourage you.

This encouragement is not the only thing. You find yourselves, gentlemen, in the capital of a great nation whose history of a thousand years represents the alliance and the integrity of two great principles, or, to speak more definitely, of two distinct religions, whose equilibrium has always been maintained by the tact and moral spirit of the nation.

Indebted for its national and political development to the genius of its church and to the organic force of its historic traditions, Russia preserves them with a sacred respect—sacred, immutable, and independent.

But, being the youngest of the nations in the age of European civilization, Russia is faithful to her duty to improve herself in the school of this civilization in all that the sciences and arts produce that is great and useful, wherever human thought devotes itself to the service of assisting the needy and alleviating suffering. The purpose of your present reunion is to discover these needs and to alleviate these ills. To retain for imprisonment the severity of its penal character, to allay and diminish as much as possible its hurtful effects, to increase and strengthen its reformatory and regenerating influence—such are the ends of your work, in which we join you with the respect due to your ideas, to your labors, and to your experience. Permit me, gentlemen, influenced by these ideas and sentiments, to welcome you and to assure you of our most sincere sympathies and to extend our best wishes for the success of the noble work you have undertaken.

It is useless to add, gentlemen, that in me personally and in all those under my direction you will find a readiness to aid you and to be useful to you in the accomplishment of your labors.

Certain passages of this discourse, and especially the conclusion, were received with great applause.

OPENING OF THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

The solemn opening of the congress was held at 1 o'clock in the afternoon, Sunday, June 15, in the great hall of the assembly of the nobility. There was to be nothing in the exercises inappropriate to the Sabbath from the American standpoint, and yet the day would probably not have been selected in this country. The observance of that day on the European continent differs materially from what it is in America. On the continent it is more of a holiday than one of rest and worship. The difference in conditions and customs must account for the selection of that day for the opening of the congress. And yet, if there is one thing Europe especially needs, it is the quiet, rest, and recuperative force, as well as the worship, of the American Sabbath. The word *American* is used, for there is no Sabbath in the streets of England, where unlimited numbers of drinking places are open on Sunday, day and night, and are crowded with young and old, young women often being present. The home of the Sabbath is to-day more in America than anywhere the world over.

The great hall of the assembly of the nobility is on Michael street, which is parallel to the Nevsky Prospect and a few rods from the Hotel d'Europe, which is on the street connecting the two first named. The exterior of the building is massive, large, plain, and imposing. The interior is of ample proportions, having, besides the main hall for the general meetings, other large rooms for the use of the sections. The main hall is at least 75 feet wide by about 100 feet long. About 15 feet wide around the entire hall is a platform or floor about 3 feet higher than that of the main audience room in the center. This widens to about 25 feet at the back forming the great stage or platform for the president, secretaries, etc. Around the hall and next to the audience floor, except on the platform end, are great pillars reaching to the high ceiling. Entering the hall, on the right in the center of the side elevation and between the massive pillars will be seen the imperial tribune for occupation by members of the royal family, where frequently the Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg were seen as attentive listeners, and accompanied by others of like rank. This tribune is about 25 feet long, covered by a canopy of red material and surmounted by a gilt crown. Facing this, on the other side, is a large bronze statue of Empress Catherine II, in sitting posture.

The principal entrance of the edifice was decorated with elegant simplicity, having in large plain letters an inscription in French "Fourth International Prison Congress." The hall itself had a most interesting and imposing aspect. Its grand architectural character required only sober decoration. All that was done was proof of most elegant taste, and was in entire harmony with the serious character of the reunion. Upon the great stage or platform in the rear were disposed masses of verdure, plants, and flowers, surrounding an exact reproduc-

ALEXANDER III,
EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.

tion of the monument raised at Cherson to the memory of the great philanthropist, John Howard. At the front of the platform were the tables and seats for the president in the center and the secretaries on the right and left. On two sides of the platform, seats were reserved for official delegates, who, however, generally occupied seats with the other members on the main audience floor.

In the middle of the hall were the seats for the members; on the elevated sides of the hall between the great pillars were handsome decorations of plants and flowers, and especially grouped around the statue of Empress Catherine II and the imperial tribune. Everything had been done to make the great assembly room attractive and convenient for the congress. At the time designated everything was complete for the great opening; the members were present, and among them many ladies. The meeting also attracted some of the most conspicuous persons of the empire. Among them were Mr. Dournovo, minister of the interior; Mr. Manasséine, minister of justice; Mr. Ostrovsky, minister of domains; Mr. Hubbenet, minister of ways of communication; Mr. Tchikatchew, minister of the marine; Count Delianow, minister of public instruction; Mr. Vyschnegradsky, minister of finance; Mr. Pobédonostsew, attorney-general of the holy synod; Mr. Vlangaly, assistant minister of foreign affairs, and Mr. Polovtsow, secretary of the empire. There were also present members of the council of the empire, senators, generals, foreign ambassadors, and other chiefs of missions, to assist in the reunion.

At 1:45 o'clock there were seated in the imperial tribune the following:

Their Majesties the Emperor and Empress of Russia and the Queen of Greece; his imperial highness, the hereditary Grand Duke; their highnesses, the Grand Duke Georges Alexandrovitch, the Grand Duke Alexis Alexandrovitch, the Grand Duke Vladimir, the Grand Duke Serge Alexandrovitch, the Grand Duchess Elizabeth Feodorovna, the Grand Duke Paul Alexandrovitch, the Grand Duke Michel Nicolaïévitch, the Grand Duchess Olga Fédorovna, the Grand Duke Constantine Constantinovitch, the Grand Duchess Elizabeth Mavrikievna, the Grand Duke Georges Mikaïlovitch, the Grand Duke Alexander Mikaïlovitch, the Grand Duke Serge Mikhaïlovitch, the Grand Duchess Catharine Mikhaïlovna, the Princes Nicholas and Georges Maximilianovitch Romanovsky, the Dukes of Leuchtemberg, Princess Eugenie Maximilianovna d' Oldenburg, Princess Helèna de Mecklenburg—Strelitz, Princes Georges and Michael de Mecklenburg—Strelitz, Prince Pierre d' Oldenburg. Their Majesties and their Highnesses were accompanied by a brilliant suite. The titles are here given quite fully as a matter of interest to American readers.

At the same time the following persons had taken their places on the great platform reserved for the bureau: His Highness Prince d'Oldenburg, the honorary president of the congress and of the commission of

organization; Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, president of the commission and of the congress, on the right of the prince, with Mr. Likhatchew, the mayor of the capital, on the left.

The following address was then delivered by the honorary president:

GENTLEMEN: One of the distinctive traits of our epoch is the international character which scientific studies in nearly all branches of human knowledge have received. This character is affirmed principally in the congress which brings together men of different countries, working in the same field of activity, allowing them to direct their common efforts to the same end and to verify theory by experience The services of such reunions are invaluable. Their high usefulness is equally manifested in the field of penitentiary science.

The Prison Congress of London may be cited in this respect as an important event. The interest it awakened about 20 years ago in these important questions has continually developed, and in most countries still increases. If we review the labors of the three international prison congresses, and the preparatory work of the present congress, we are rejoiced in demonstrating the progress realized and to know that the great task has not been undertaken in vain. The labors of these congresses have not only attracted the notice of statesmen, but also penologists and exact scientists. Undoubtedly all these united efforts will contribute to elucidate the most efficient means for securing the diminution of crime.

To attain this result, that is to prevent crime and to reduce the number of criminals, it is recognized by general assent that one of the most important things is to bring special attention to the condition of unfortunate children. As early as 1872, at the Congress of London, among the conclusions adopted was one demanding all possible solicitude for children morally and physically abandoned, as well as for those who are already vicious and criminal.

At the Congress of Stockholm, as well as that of Rome, this principle was again insisted on.

Desiring to respond to this appeal in favor of childhood, the commission of organization of the present congress has collected the greatest possible amount of practical information. The interest which is manifest at present in Russia on all these questions dates far back. John Howard, the great English philanthropist, the centenary of whose death we commemorate, had already found here a favorable land for his generous ideas. Emperor Alexander I was inspired by these views, and, with the assistance of another English philanthropist, Walter Venning, founded a society for the protection of prisons, to improve their condition and that of the prisoners. Emperor Nicholas, in his turn, interesting himself in the study of questions relative to prisons and the prevention of crime, sent official delegates to the reunions of Frankfort and Brussels, which preceded the Congress of London, although these reunions did not have a governmental character. Finally, under the reign of the Emperor Alexander II, Russia entered the way of systematic reform, and consequently of prison régime. In inviting this congress to meet in his capital, His Majesty the Emperor desired to show the interest that he took in the study of the questions of the programme which have been the subject of numerous and important preparatory works.

The discussions which these questions incite promise to be fruitful in judicious councils and practical information. And in expressing this hope, gentlemen, and in extending you welcome, I declare opened the fourth session of the International Prison Congress.

In response Mr. Herbette, chief of the French delegation and chief of the administration of the prisons of France, spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In the name of my colleagues of the International Prison Commission I am authorized to reply to the words which receive so much strength from the high

position of the gentleman who pronounces them, from the presence of the Emperor who hears them, and from all the eminent persons who assist at this session.

Our first words should be to express our gratitude and it will only be with a word, assuredly not that subjects for reflection are wanting, but because there is so much to say if we abandon ourselves to sentiment. It would be indiscreet and inopportune, perhaps, to aim too high in this simple response. But it is admissible to draw some lessons from the spectacle before us for the good of humanity.

Imagine a hearer, not informed of the object of this reunion, arriving suddenly. Imagine him as seeing such an assembly, dreaming of the motives which would lead a sovereign to give some of his time, that is to say of his life, of a life so precious to so many million beings; as he counts the illustrations within these walls; as he asks himself what work is great enough to fix the attention and attract the solicitude of statesmen, executives, magistrates, jurists, and of savants in all branches of social science; as he calculates what pressing interests have led from distant countries so many persons whose work and duties require them at home, will he not be struck with this fact, that the work here is for the unfortunate; not for the unfortunate whom fatality alone has smitten and who remain worthy of esteem in the lowest misery, but for those who have merited their fall and who are frequently obstinate in not desiring to rise again?

This fact speaks loud enough to honor our epoch and to show how, notwithstanding so many dangers which always menace the moral as well as the material life, the cause of the right always finds again new forces and brings together from places however distant men of all nations and ranks. The devotion which we have for a mission imposed for the public good, this religion of duty by which each one judges himself required to do good to others, is the source of the purest joy, the greatest consolation in trials, and the greatest hope for the future.

That nothing relating to man should be despised, even by the best and most powerful; that power is only another reason for being good; that the most virtuous are those who best aid the unfortunate—are not these ideas enough to call together theorists and active, practical men, the most virtuous and charitable women, and people of all conditions and positions in society? As the attentions to be given to those who suffer from physical evil have always been presented as a duty of the fortunate of this world, and as the example of charity goes back to the limits of history, so it seems that a deep solicitude for the restraint of moral evil and for prevention should exist for those who are better for protection. But for the want of personal benevolence and responsibility for these evils, this epoch and society suffers for evils it can not resist. It is then the work of respectable people to undertake the task of the reformation of the guilty, who are not incurable and who do not wish to be. As long as life remains, no man should be surrendered to extreme despair.

Do not involuntary and accidental causes too often throw men into human depravity, when a wise and firm direction would have given them fair morality, utility, and happiness? Thus is justified the eagerness of all to interest themselves in the conditions of children, of young men, of young girls, that is to say, of all those who are exposed to fall without knowing the perils from which to guard themselves, and are without strength to resist.

Hence the importance of this present congress and the exposition to be opened for all questions and institutions which interest children tainted or menaced by moral evil.

On this occasion how can we fail to congratulate ourselves on the vast undertaking which devoted organizers of the exposition have so intelligently accomplished, presenting this collection of documents, of facts, and of ideas which take form in the exhibits for the benefit of visitors who may learn by object lessons?

Who can understand the devotion and activity, the researches, the combinations, the preparatory details and the long transportation necessary to an exposition of this kind? How can we fail to be struck by the taste, the art, even, and the charm that

such distinguished men have given to this grouping of the various objects, prepared and collected in all countries to form this spectacle and to impress the spectators deeply with the noble thoughts they inspire? Who would not appreciate all the co-laborers of this organization? and what satisfaction it must be for strangers, their guests, to assure them of the brilliant success they have so well attained.

The principal author of this work, whom we see here, finds himself condemned to undergo eulogies which his modesty would avert if we had consulted him in the advance. Our eminent and cherished president, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, whose rare qualities are enhanced by his charming manners, has known too well how to make himself loved and appreciated by his colleagues for them to keep silent to-day. All that we can do to accede to his wishes is for us, his fellow-workers, to extend to him our cordial thanks, in the name of this general work so profitable to the various countries.

This solemnity shows better than long addresses can how distances lessen and are effaced, thanks to inventions and to modern ideas. So many men whose occupations do not seem to leave them free to make a short journey in their own country have found it very simple to come here, and are happy to be in this great and beautiful city of St. Petersburg, in the capital of this immense empire, where such an effort has been made for the progress of penal and penitentiary science.

After having expressed these congratulations and eulogies, which are in the thoughts of all, how can we be prevented from repeating to the honorary president of the congress, Prince d'Oldenburg, the expression of general gratitude? And how will her highness the Princess d'Oldenburg refuse to have her name associated with that gratitude as she associates herself in works of benevolence and protection tending to save all who are not irredeemably lost in the world of the unfortunate and guilty?

But whatever may be the reserve of my colleagues and myself, the sentiments of all can not be interpreted by a word in extending homage and profoundly respectful wishes for the family and person of him who would have the right to remain indifferent to evidences purely exterior, but who will not be indifferent, we hope, to the sincere gratitude which we all here have for His Majesty the Emperor of Russia.

This address closed the speaking of this session.

Their majesties and their highnesses then retired and the foreign official delegates, by invitation, arranged themselves near the imperial tribune, in ranks according to their respective countries. The Emperor and Empress having returned into the hall, the official delegates had the honor to be presented to them by Mr. Wraskoy and were received and conversed with very cordially. At the close of the presentation, their majesties and their highnesses went to the Michael Riding School building to inaugurate the International Penitentiary Exposition.

They were received there by Prince d'Oldenburg and Mr. Wraskoy, who accompanied them through the various sections. In the different sections, the official delegates of the respective countries explained to the Emperor and Empress the exhibits. On arriving at the Italian section, the Emperor was presented with the first volume of an album of prison architecture which was offered as a souvenir of this international reunion.

The visit and inauguration closed about 4 o'clock.

THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON EXPOSITION.

This great exposition, organized with so much labor and expense and so successfully accomplished, was a very attractive feature of the congress and was very frequently visited and inspected with great interest by the members. The location was less than half a mile from the Hall of the Nobility, and the exhibit was in the building known as the Michael Riding School. This structure has before been used for other expositions and is well adapted for such purposes. It is about 500 feet long and about 125 feet wide and probably 50 feet high in the center. It was held under the management of the president and honorary president of the congress, who were assisted by a commissary general, eight commissaries, a committee of twenty-seven members, and by twenty assistant members of the committee.

The exposition was divided into three sections, as follows:

1. International exposition of the products of the labor of prisoners under cellular régime.

2. International exposition of all objects serving in the management of correctional establishments for minors, as well as of all information relative to these establishments and specimens of the work done by minors.

3. International exposition of the products of the labor of prisoners in prisons where the convicts worked in common.

The purposes of the exposition being to furnish practical evidences, particularly of the interior organization of prisons and their economical service, each exhibit was presented as conspicuously as possible.

To accomplish this the building was divided as follows:

1. *Lengthwise.*—On both sides of the central passage were placed the exhibits belonging to prisons in common. The left passage separated the preceding group from that for correctional establishments for minors. The right passage separated the central group from that for cellular prisons.

2. *Diameter.*—Divided according to the names of the several states and the space in square metres occupied by each, as follows:

Baden, Bavaria, Hamburg, Prussia, Saxony, and Wurtemburg, together, 330 square metres floor space. England and the Argentine Republic, together, occupied only 10 square metres. Austria and Hungary 95, Belgium 192, Denmark 128, Spain and France 320, Italy 154, Greece, Japan, Portugal, Sweden, Norway, and Switzerland, 120; and Russia in its exhibit of provincial prisons and of those of Finland, transportation service, force labor at Nertchinsk, and the prisons of the island of Saghalien, occupied 2,066 square metres, making an exhibit larger than all the other countries combined, and attractive and interesting in all respects.

Each group of the Russian exhibit was subdivided into classes.

Group I was divided as follows: First, products of the labor of young prisoners. Second, objects relative to their mode of support.

Groups two and three were subdivided as follows: First, spinning. Second, rope-making. Third, straw articles and those from bark, strips, and roots of trees. Fourth, carpentry, turning, joinery, cooperage, house painting, coach-making, etc. Fifth, articles made by blacksmiths and locksmiths; articles of iron or silver, and agricultural machines and utensils. Sixth, bookbinding, including binding with boards. Seventh, clothing and shoemaking, clothing for prisoners, for guards, equipments, and hand-work. Eighth, prison buildings. Ninth, outside work. Tenth, tanning. Eleventh, different objects and effects produced by prisoners not included in the other classes, and twelfth, articles and information relative to the support of prisoners.

All the interior fittings of the exposition were extensive, namely, the tables, the glass showcases, frames, platforms, etc., which were made by the prisoners in St. Petersburg. The unbleached cloth and most of the textures constituting the principal material for ornamentation were the work of convicts in the prisons of St. Petersburg.

To present the details of the exposition intelligently for each institution represented, there were furnished printed pamphlets describing the exhibit made by each, all of which formed an analytical catalogue of the exposition. These pamphlets are of various sizes, that of England having 7 pages and the Russian 202.

On entering this extensive exposition the visitor is agreeably impressed by its attractive appearance. Looking down the wide passage through the center, he sees, 500 feet away, the farther end occupied by a representation of mountain scenery, which forms the model of the mines of Agaltchi worked by prisoners condemned to forced labor. It is a prison of stone in the mining district of Nertchinsk, and represents the shafts following the veins of argentiferous lead, uniting in the gallery, to which different underground passages are conducted. The completed and unfinished shafts show the work as it progresses, in some places representing everything ready for the explosion by dynamite. The methods for conveying the metal along the shafts and the process for elevation to the surface are shown; also, the manner of raising or lowering the prisoners. The exterior is a very realistic reproduction of rough and rocky mountainous scenery.

Before him all over the great interior one sees the exhibits arranged in their several divisions, while the flags of all nations decorate the walls and the names of the several nations appear over their exhibits. The gloom of the subject does not pervade the room, for the articles exhibited and their surroundings would not suggest the prison walls, but rather the display of successful industries in a country where the arts are encouraged and perfected. In passing from section to section one would feel that he was in a first-class exposition of free labor. Whether the articles exhibited were harnesses for work-horses, car-

riages, heavy or light, agricultural implements or household utensils made in various countries or ornamental work in ivory, stone, or metal cut by delicate Italian hands, the work everywhere gave evidence of expert labor and artistic taste. Taken together, the exhibit was inviting and of absorbing interest. It would require volumes to describe the exposition in detail. The Russian exhibit alone had about 3,500 articles; Belgium had 1,140; Wurtemburg, 431, etc. Only a very brief sketch can be given of some prominent features.

It is known that great importance is attached to prison labor, as it is useful and reformatory for the prisoner and promotes economy. The products of prison labor furnish a revenue for the state and diminish public expenses. Hence it was useful to know how this labor has been organized in various countries and the results derived. Not only adult labor but that of minors has been utilized, by which children are reared with industrious habits, are taught trades, and assist in their own support and are self-supporting when they leave the institution. For example: The products in iron of the children in Belgium are shown, the results being remarkable. In France the young prisoners have acquired a wonderful skill in hand work. And child work in other countries can be also highly commended.

The exhibit of the German states was extensive. Prussia occupied the center of these states. The German products were quite varied, and among them were articles of furniture and upholstering and artificial flowers. In the Baden section there were some very fine articles of walnut furniture. In the Prussian exhibit there was an interesting model of the penitentiary of Gross-Strelitz and a model of a cell. Wurtemburg also had some fine articles.

The Austrian prisons were productive in the industrial arts. Carving in wood predominated. There was a remarkable panel with a head of the Virgin. There was also sacerdotal clothing made by the prisoners, uniforms for the troops as well as for the guards. The tapestries and designs representing work from the principal Austrian prisons were exhibited. Belgium occupied considerable space and had a large number of exhibits.

The prisons of that country are cellular and a model of the prison of Lousain was exhibited. It is one of the largest prisons in Europe and is arranged in the form of a star. The uniforms of the entire Belgium army are made in the prisons and samples were shown. There was a model in straw of the Eiffel tower.

In all, the educational correctional establishments of Belgium had 503 exhibits, the cellular prisons 488, and the prisons in common 149. Denmark exhibited specimens of clothing made by children in educational correctional institutions, together with many articles useful for the house. The prisons in common and the cellular prisons also had exhibits.

The French exhibition was especially unique. It was a remarkable

one on account of its great extent, wise selection of articles exhibited, and by its classification. The first striking feature was the historical study of the penalties from the time of the Hebrews to the present.

There was a series of photographs devoted to the subjects which were very interesting. There was a passage from the record of the Bastile relative to the prisoner with the iron mask; there were *lettres de cachet* which put Voltaire and Latude in that prison; the box which Latude sent to Madame de Pompadour and in which he was inclosed; an authentic pillory, and the fetters formerly used, at the side of those now in use. There were representations of the Bastile, Vincennes, the chateau of Clisson, and the Conciergerie; Loches and Fontevrault, the first cellular prisons; the model of a remarkable cell for a prisoner condemned to death; section of a cell for night isolation; interesting models from an agricultural colony, and others from a maritime colony for minors. There was also a fine exhibit of prison labor.

It is natural that the Italian section should find place for the fine arts, for music and for engraving. Tradesmen saw with much interest the model of the great agricultural penal colony of Tre Fontane in an ancient abbey of the Trappists, not far from Rome. In this exhibit there was also a collection of wines made by prisoners that merited special notice.

The display from Japan was interesting and well conducted. That country has given close attention to the study of prison questions. Among the most practical submitted to the congress were those from that Government.

In the great Russian exhibit, spinning and weaving were prominent, including work from different prisons and interesting specimens of cloth of excellent quality. In the cellular system in use in Russia, weaving is generally done by the prisoner with the loom in his cell. And it is often so with all kinds of prison labor there, from the simplest labor required of a short-time prisoner, like twisting hempen strings, to the carving in wood, cabinet making, weaving, etc. In this section were specimens of white silk made in the prisons of Taschent.

The prison known as the "Chateau of Lithuanie," in St. Petersburg, exhibited ropes, mats, and articles made from straw, machines, and useful agricultural tools. The correctional establishments of the capital occupied the first ranks in tinware, in carpentry, in cabinet work, and in turning. It was interesting to see in the Russian section, as well as in the exposition generally, the thoughtful care that has been given in the European prison administration to supply varied labor adapted to long and short terms, to both unskilled and skilled hands, and to all conditions mentally and physically, to insure as far as possible employment for all. The Russians have many industries with which the people are familiar, and which can be readily adapted to prison life. The climate there, as in other countries, plays its rôle in the selection of work, as well as the usual productions, trades, etc.

The feature of the Russian exhibit which attracted marked attention

was that section in which were shown the interior and exterior plans of some of the principal prisons of western Russia, including the great new cellular prison of Viborg, in the capital, the great prison on the island of Saghalien, and the models of large steamboats for the transportation of prisoners to remote parts of Siberia. The miniature copy of the Viborg prison was upon a platform about 3 feet high, and the buildings were but a few inches high and remarkably well made. Not only the exterior was shown of the whole prison, but the cell interior, the size of the rooms, the beds, the means of heating, lighting, ventilation, the appliances for labor, etc. This prison is for about 1,000 convicts, and is considered one of the most perfect, if not the best, in the opinion of some, that has ever yet been constructed in any country. All branches of service in this prison have been carried to the highest extent that European experience, study, and observation could take them. And this perfection has not been reached to make prison life desirable, but intelligently humane, to the end that the prisoner while in confinement should have pure air, light, labor, reformatory treatment, all reasonable assistance to aid—while he is undergoing due punishment—to restoration of manhood and self-support.

The sectional and other views of models of the great barges used on the Volga and on the other rivers of Siberia, for the transportation of prisoners, attracted much attention. These models were about 6 to 8 feet long and represented ships, steamers constructed in the most approved and artistic manner, as though for speed as well as for utility. The barges were represented by half the boat cut through the center lengthwise from the top to the bottom, showing the several decks with the cells for prisoners upon each side. The Government, in the construction of these steamers, has evidently labored to carry this service to the highest perfection possible. All sanitary needs have had careful attention as well as the security of the convicts under transportation. The steamer *Nijni-Novgorod*, exhibited there by model, is the one used to transport prisoners to the island of Saghalien.

There were also models of the station houses provided for exiles sent overland by wagons to Siberia. There was altogether quite a full exhibit of the various modes for transporting prisoners. There seemed to be no reserve on the part of the Government, so far as the exposition showed, in exhibiting the features of transportation.

It is certain that America could have made in this congress an exhibit that would have reflected great credit on the management of American prisons. There were frequent expressions of regret from Europeans that America had no exhibit, with the hope that we would have our prison system presented at the exposition of the congress to be held in Paris in 1895.

If any evidence were wanting to prove there had been progress in the administration of prisons, it was furnished by this great exposition. It showed that in all lands prison labor was utilized for the great bene-

fit of both the convicts and the state. It showed that no longer was there confinement in dungeons without proper air, without exercise, and without labor, which was formerly considered by the Government as the proper treatment. This exhibition was evidence that penology had reached nearer than ever the condition of one of the exact sciences.

Previous to 1886 the labor of convicts was not well organized in the prisons of Russia. In that year the council of the Empire perfected a plan which was approved by the Emperor. Previous to 1886 the labor of prisoners did not constitute an essential part of their punishment. Labor was only partially organized in a limited number of prisons, preference being given to work in cells. The province of Vistula was most noted for prison labor, but even there it could be only imperfectly organized, owing to the condition of the buildings and the congregate régime of the prisoners. New prisons, or the remodeling of the old, were needed before labor could be successfully carried on. By virtue of the regulations of 1886, the directors of the prisons were charged with the care of providing the prisoners with labor and with the management of the convicts in the workshops. Thus the prisoners, for whom labor became obligatory, were for the first time classed as laborers and their work for the different seasons definitely regulated.

According to the regulations, the prisoners receive as remuneration a discount in the cost of the material employed in the work—for those condemned to prison, 40 per cent.; for those committed to correctional institutions, 33 per cent., and for exiled convicts, 10 per cent. One-half of the excess goes into the treasury of the Government and the other goes to the prison. The prisoners who participate voluntarily in the work of the prisons receive 60 per cent. of the common profit. The remaining 40 per cent. goes to the prison. In case the convicts engage in work not provided by the prison, such as work for which there are no proper tools, work which requires special knowledge or exceptional skill, their earnings are to undergo no reduction. The proportion of the profit of the prisoners is fixed in each institution by special regulations issued by the administration general of prisons. The compensation to which the prisoner is entitled can not be converted to other purposes In case of his death, it goes to his heirs.

The three years which have elapsed since this new law of Russia came into operation do not afford time enough to determine accurately the results. There has been great difficulty in the execution of the law. The prisons were not of suitable construction, and then the Russians are an agricultural people, and a convict from that class must learn the trade to which he is set. He becomes an apprentice. In the localities where there are mechanics there is the same disadvantage, for the workman outside labors on a section of the article being constructed, and can work in prison only on the part with which he has experience. A great difficulty in modifying prisons to introduce labor has been the serious want of funds. To make shops in prison, to supply

tools or machinery, much money is required. Capital is also required to supply material. Then the location of a prison in a sparse population where there are few to purchase the articles produced is another hindrance. The quality of the articles made by this labor, which is often rude, is such that they can not come into competition with the products of skilled labor, and in this way their sale is hindered. The effect of prison labor on free labor is one which has often been discussed in this and in other countries, and free labor has never encouraged prison labor. This influence tends to lower the prices of prison products.

These are some of the obstacles which come in the way of prison labor in Russia and generally in other countries. But on the whole, notwithstanding these unfavorable influences, there has been in Russia a steady advance in the work of establishing labor in the prisons and with beneficial results. If it has not always proved remunerative on the capital invested, the system so far as developed has given the prisoners a fixed and permanent employment which is essential to reformatory régime and to prevent relapses into crime by teaching trades whereby the convict becomes self-supporting.

Outside of prisons, the city authorities have employed convicts on the streets with good results, while on the shores of great rivers they have been employed in loading and unloading vessels.

They have also been employed with advantage on public works. The work on the construction of the highway of Kief-Jitonrir, in the government of Valhynie, and that on the bridge over the Téteref River have proved a remarkable economy for the state. Their employment in the construction of the Stavropal road and the aqueduct of Tiflis was also satisfactory.

The organization of this labor was to interest the prisoners, to assure them a portion of the earnings, and to lead them to exercise a surveillance over each other which would prevent negligence or flight while at work. It is through the execution of the law of 1886 that Russia has organized her prison labor, and it is by reason of such prison labor that it has been able to make the extensive exhibit in the exposition of the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg. And the share which Russia has in this great exhibit sufficiently demonstrates the advance of that country in prison reform, and especially in its most important feature, that of employment for prisoners.

In the proceedings, the views of some of the members are given on this subject.

REGULAR SESSIONS OF THE CONGRESS.

Monday, June 16, at 10 a. m., the members of the three sections of the International Prison Congress met in their respective rooms in the Palace of the Assembly of the Nobility. Each room was a large hall, convenient, well lighted, and appropriate. Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, as president of the commission of organization and president of the Inter-

national Prison Commission, attended successively the three sections and opened the business. He requested each of the sections to name its several officers. On these occasions he expressed the hope that the congress would thoroughly dispose of all questions and business which should come before it and leave no unfinished business for the next congress. In compliance with the request of Mr. Wraskoy the several sections appointed the following officers:

Section 1.—President, Mr. Pols, Netherlands; vice presidents, Mr. Annerstedt, Sweden; Mr. Canonico, Italy; Mr. Dumas, France; Mr. Föhring, Hamburg; Mr. Milenko-Wesnitch, Servia; and Dr. Stark, Prussia. Secretary, Mr. Golovine; assistant secretaries, Mr. Rasselli, Mr. de Brevern, Mr. Tcherman, Mr. Gifkovitch, and Mr. Bogdanian; attachés, Baron de Heyking, Mr. de Reutern, Mr. Kahl, and Mr. Coudrine.

Section 2.—President, Mr. Goos, Denmark; vice presidents, Mr. Blanc, France; Mr. Jahn, Saxony; Mr. Ihling, Prussia; Mr. Prins, Belgium; Mr. Randall, United States; Mr. Woxen, Norway; and Mr. Yvernè, France. Secretary, Baron de Taubé; assistant secretaries, Baron de Graevenitz, Baron de Meyendorff, Baron de Stahl de Holstein, and Mr. Verevkine; attachés, Mr. Mouraview-Apostol Carabyine, Count Hendrikow, Mr. Henri Pessina, and Mr. Victor Almquist.

Section 3.—President, Mr. de Jagemann; vice presidents, Mr. Ferreira Deusdato, Portugal; Mr. Fetzer, Würtemburg; Mr. Nocito, Italy; Mr. Hill, England; Mr. Stoos, Switzerland; and Mr. Voisin, France. Secretaries, Mr. Tsekhanovetsky; assistant secretaries, Count Keller, Mr. Batorsky, Mr. Listchinsky, Mr. Poutilow, and Mr. Kamenetsky; attachés, Mr. Ostafiew, Mr. Priklonsky, Mr. Ponomarew, and Mr. Mark.

The several sections after naming their officers and completing their organization fixed the order of business for the next session, and adjourned to meet the next day in the forenoon.

GENERAL ASSEMBLY.

At 11 o'clock in the forenoon of June 16 the three sections met in general assembly in the great hall of the Assembly of the Nobility for organization. At this place it may be as well to give a list of the members to show their number, names, and the various countries represented. Aside from the Russian delegation there were about 125 foreign delegates present. With the Russian members there were over 200 in all. The names of the Russian delegates are given only in part in this list.

LIST OF MEMBERS:

Baden.—Mr. Adolf Fuchs, privy counselor of finance at Carlsruhe, official delegate.

Dr. Gutsch, privy councilor and former chief physician of the prisons of Bruschal, member of the central committee of the Society of Patronage, official delegate.

Dr. Eugene de Jagemann, ministerial counselor at Carlsruhe, and chief of the delegation from Baden.

Dr. de Kirchenheim, professor at Heidelberg, official delegate.

Bavaria.—Mr. Valentine Reisenbach, counselor to the minister of justice at Munich, official delegate.

Hamburg.—Mr. Föehring, presiding judge in Hamburg, and official delegate.

Mme. Föehring.

Nassau.—Dr. Keller, priest at Weisbaden, president and delegate of the Prison Association of Nassau.

Prussia.—Mr. Braumbehrens, superior privy counrcilor to the ministe of the interior of Prussia, Berlin, official delegate.

Mr. Illing, superior privy councilor to the minister of the interior of Prussia, Berlin, official delegate.

Mme. Illing.

Mr. Krohne, director of the prison of Moabit, Berlin.

Mr. Starke, superior privy councilor to the minister of justice of Prussia at Berlin, official delegate.

Mr. Volkman, attaché to the German ambassador, St. Petersburg.

Saxony.—Mr. Jaeppel, privy councilor to the minister of the interior of Saxony at Dresden, official delegate.

Mr. Iahn, privy councilor to the minister of justice at Dresden, official delegate.

Würtemburg.—Mr. Fetzer, counselor and attorney-general, Heilbron, official delegate.

England.—Mr. Alfred Hill, magistrate and delegate of the Reformatory and Refuge Union.

Mr. John Campbell, director of the central prison of Perth.

Dr. Mouat, vice president of the Royal Statistical Society of London.

Argentine Republic.—Mr. Edward Ybarbalz, charge d'affaires of the legation of the Argentine Republic to the imperial and royal government of Austria-Hungary at Vienna, official delegate.

Austria-Hungary.—M. Y. Boek, counselor in the court of appeals, Budapesth.

Count Chorinsky, presiding judge in Budapesth, official delegate.

Mme. Countess Chorinsky.

Mr. Gustave de Groisz, professor in the university of Koloszvar.

Mr. Sigismond Làszlò, ministerial counselor to the minister of justice at Budapesth, official delegate.

Dr. Leitmaier, imperial and royal attorney-general, Gratz, official delegate.

Mr. Joseph de Levay, secretary of the prison commission at Budapesth.

Mr. Stanislas de Natecz Korzeniowski, priest and director of patronage.

Dr. Ferdinand Saria, advocate, Gratz.

Count Henri Skarbek, member of the patronage committee and trustee of the orphan asylum.

Belgium.—Mr. Delatour, director-general of prisons and of public safety, Brussels, official delegate.

Mr. Prins, professor and inspector-general of the prisons of Brussels, official delegate.

Mr. Stevens, director of the prison of St. Gilles, Brussels, official delegate.

Mr. Hippolyte Quirini, president of the administrative prison commission, Louvain.

Denmark.—Mr. F. Ammitzboell, director of the prison in Vridsloeselille.

Mr. Birch, member of the criminal court.

Mr. Galskjol, Copenhagen.

Mr. Charles Goos, director-general of prisons, Copenhagen, official delegate.

Mr. Haurowitz, state counselor, Copenhagen.

Mr. Nanche, judge of the district of Odder Aarhus.

Mr. Berlème Nix, representing two establishments of Flakkebyerg and of Lauderupgaard.

Mme. Berlème Nix.

Mr. Palisen, vice-consul of Denmark, St. Petersburg.

Mr. Carsten Petersen, chief of police, Copenhagen.

Mme. Anna Petersen, member of several patronage societies, Copenhagen.

Mr. Stuckenberg, editor of the Penitentiary Review of the North.

Spain.—Mr. Juan de Dios de la Rada y Delgrado, member of the superior council of prisons, in Madrid, senator and official delegate.

Mr. Gonzalo Cedron de la Pedraja, Madrid.

Mr. Raphael Sallilas, chief of the sanitary service of the prisons in Madrid, official delegate.

Mr. Eugenio Silvela, Madrid.

United States of America.—Mr. C. D. Randall, resident member of the board of control of the State public school of Michigan for dependent children, at Coldwater, Michigan, official delegate.

Mr. Charles E. Smith, minister of the United States to the Imperial Government of Russia, in St. Petersburg, official delegate.

Mr. Wurts, counselor of legation to the United States minister, St. Petersburg.

France.—Mr. F. Barra, officer of the academy, inspector of the transfer service, Paris.

Mr. Xavier Blanc, senator, Paris.

Mr. Boursans, inspector-general of the administration of prisons for the secretary of the interior, vice president of the committee on conditional liberation, official delegate, Paris.

Mr. Brun, director of the penitentiary colony of St. Hilaire, official delegate.

Mr. Brunot, chief of the press service for the minister of the interior.

Mme. Brunot.

Count Le Courbe, secretary of the "Société Générale des Prisons" and delegate from the society of discharged prisoners of St. Lazare.

Mr. Darlot, general counselor of the department of the Seine and president of the commission for prison buildings, Paris.

Dr. Merry Delabost, superintendent of the sanitary service of the prisons of Rouen (Lower Seine), official delegate.

Mr. Ferdinand Dreyfus, former deputy, member of the superior council of prisons, official delegate.

Mr. Dumas, state counselor, director of criminal affairs and of pardons to the minister of justice.

Mr. Jacques Hausmann, director of the administration of colonial affairs, official delegate.

Mr. Louis Herbette, state counselor, director of the prison administration of France, and chief of the official delegation of France.

Mr. Joly, professor of criminal law and penitentiary science and honorary dean of the faculty of Paris.

Mr. Laguesse, director of the Santé prison, Paris, official delegate.

M. de Lavaissière de Lavergne, director of the division of transportation, official delegate.

Mr. Jules Leveillé, professor in the University of Paris.

Mr. Leygues, deputy, Paris.

Mr. Louvard, chief of the bureau of public works, especially charged with the care of prison buildings of the department of the Seine.

Mr. Marnejouls, deputy.

Mr. Mollat, member of the Société Générale des Prisons.

Mr. Normand, architect, inspector-general of the prisons of Paris, official delegate.

Mr. Pages, chief of the bureau of the minister of finance and member of the Société Générale des Prisons.

Mr. Peyron, Paris.

Mr. Reynaud, chief of the bureau of the minister of the interior, secretary of the superior council of prisons, official delegate.

Mr. Rivière, former magistrate and member of the Société Générale des Prisons.

Mr. Rollet, advocate and secretary general of the society for the protection of children, official delegate, Paris.

Mr. Theophile Roussel, senator, member of the superior council of prisons.

Mr. Roussel, member of the council general of the Seine.

Mr. Sautumier, advocate.

Mr. Souriaux, director of the central prison of Beaulieu, Caen.

Mr. Strauss, member of the council general of the Seine, Paris.

Mr. Veiller, director of the central prison of Lauderman.

Mr. Felix Voisin, former deputy, counselor of the court of appeals, and member of the superior council of prisons, official delegate.

Mr. Yvernes, chief of division for the minister of justice and religion.

Greece.—Mr. Alexander Skouses, member of the Greek Parliament, official delegate.

Italy.—Mr. Bernardin Alimena, advocate and professor, Cosenza.

Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, director-general of the prisons of Italy, official delegate.

Mr. Bernabo-Silorata, inspector-general of prisons.

Mr. Emile Brusa, professor in the University of Turin, official delegate from the Italian minister of justice.

Mr. Augusto Bosco.

Mr. Tancred Canonico, senator of the Kingdom of Italy, official delegate.

Mr. Hector Ciolfi, director of the Jurisprudence Universal Review, Rome, delegate from the Society of Advocates.

Mr. Nocito, professor and deputy of Parliament.

Mr. Henri Pessina, senator of the Kingdom of Italy, official delegate.

Mr. Romeo Taverni, professor of the University of Catane.

Japan.—Mr. Nissi, minister of Japan to the Imperial Government of Russia, St. Petersburg.

Mr. Ohmaie, secretary of the Japanese legation.

Norway.—Mr. A. Daal, director of the central prison of Trondhjem.

Mr. Harold Smedal, attorney for the King, Christiania.

Mr. Woxen, director-general of the prisons of Norway.

Netherlands.—Mr. D. Z. Van Duyl, deputy recorder of Amsterdam.

Mr. Pols, professor in the University of Utrecht, official delegate.

Portugal.—Mr. Antonio Ferreira Deusdado, professor in Lisbon, official delegate.

Servia.—Mr. Milenko-Vesnitsch, doctor of laws, official delegate.

Sweden.—Mr. Victor Almquist, attaché of the prison administration of Sweden.

Mme. Almquist.

Mr. Samuel Ludvig Annerstedt, former judge of the supreme court and president of the law commission, official delegate.

Switzerland.—Mr. G. Correvon, judge of the cantonal court of Lausanne and delegate from the Swiss Prison Society.

Dr. Guillaume, chief of the federal bureau of statistics in Berne, secretary general of the fourth congress, and member and secretary of the International Prison Commission, official delegate.

Dr. Riggenbach, chaplain of the prison of Bale-Ville, official delegate.

Dr. Francois La Roche, member of the municipal council, president of the committee of patronage of Bâle and delegate of the Swiss patronage society.

Mr. Ferdinand Rüsch, doctor of laws, Basle, and delegate of the Swiss law society.

Dr. Stoos, professor and judge of the court of appeals, Berne, official delegate.

Turkey.—D'Jelal-Bey-Effendi, director of the criminal division to the minister of justice, Constantinople, official delegate.

Russia.—The names of the Russian delegates will appear in the proceedings of the congress, to be published by the International Prison Congress, but are too numerous to be given here. There were over three hundred names on the list, and probably one hundred were in attendance. It will be noted that by the rules each government had only one vote where there were several official delegates. The large number of its delegates did not give Russia a preponderance of the votes on conclusions.

The delegates from Russia generally were especially fitted for their duties, being selected from specialists in prison management or from those who were familiar with penal law.

Not only as president of the congress, as president of the committee of organization and of the International Prison Commission, but as the leader of the Russian members, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy was in position and labors at the head of his people. Always active, social, and cordial, this gentleman, of great executive ability, was always present, assisting in the councils and work of the congress. His long experience at the head of the administration of Russian prisons and his living sympathy with the most advanced thought in prison reform eminently fitted him to represent Russia and to lead in this congress. Russia gave the best material she had to this congress. Representing most directly the Emperor, his kinsman, Prince d'Oldenburg, was the honorary president of the congress and frequently attended, and by social attentions and otherwise showed his interest in the members and the congress. He was often accompanied and assisted by his wife, the Princess d'Oldenburg.

Among the Russian delegates were Count Delianou, minister of public instruction; Mr. Dournovo, minister of the interior; Mr. de Hubbenet, minister of roads and bridges; Mr. Manasseine, minister of justice; Mr. Ostrovski, minister of domains; Mr. Wannowski, minister of war, and Mr. Tchikhatchew, minister of the marine. There were also present the Russian inspector-general of prisons, the director of the society of prisons, the secretary of state, the minister of foreign affairs, directors of prisons, advocates, professors of the universities, members of the jurisprudence society of St. Petersburg, senators of Russia, and senators of Finland, governors of provinces, judges, the minister of the court, and other officials connected with the household of the Emperor, mayors of cities, including those of Moscow and St. Petersburg, members of the imperial council, delegates from penal and reformatory institutions, and other official and private persons. The names omitted

were as important as those mentioned, and include many of the ablest gentlemen and best workers in the congress.

At the time stated, June 16, in the general assembly, on being called to order, Mr. Beltrani-Scalia proposed the name of Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy as president of the congress. This proposition was adopted by acclamation and with applause.

Mr. Wraskoy thanked the congress in appropriate words for the honor conferred, and added that he could accept the duties only on condition that the congress would add as associate presidents Mr. Beltrani-Scalia and Mr. Herbette, the first having been his predecessor as president of the International Prison Commission and the second being then the vice president of that commission.

By acclamation the assembly acceded to the desire expressed by Mr. Wraskoy, and appointed Mr. Beltrani-Scalia and Mr. Herbette as associate presidents.

Mr. Wraskoy proposed then as vice presidents Messrs. Don Juan de Dios de la Rada y Delgado, Spain; Laszlo, Hungary; de Latour, Belgium; Leitmaier, Austria; Pessina, Italy; Reissenbach, Bavaria; Roussel, France; and Skouses, Greece.

Secretary-general, Dr. Guillaume, Switzerland; assistant sécretariés, Messrs. Corrévon, Likhatchew, Komarow.

Attachés, Messrs. Prince Galitzin, Svétchine, and Pribéjaew.

These propositions were adopted by acclamation.

Mr. Herbette took the floor and said:

Mr. PRESIDENT: Permit me to say a word. Our eminent and generous hosts of Russia have declined to take, in the bureau of the congress and in the bureau of the sections, the places which their merit, their knowledge, and their high situation give them the right to. We are not able to subdue this sentiment, so delicate and hospitable, and this obstinate resistance, which is a refinement of amiability. It is necessary that we here all manifest our regrets and add the most cordial thanks to the distinguished gentlemen, who can not at least prevent us from expressing our gratitude.

Dr. Guillaume, the secretary-general, read the account of the previous session which was adopted. He then presented letters and telegrams of regret for inability to attend the congress. Among them were: Senator Ritscher, of Lubeck; Dr. Motet, Paris; Madame Charlotte von Mayer, Bonn; Mr. Armengol y Cornet, Barcelona; P. de Broca, France; D. H. Delprat, of Rotterdam; General Lathrop, director of the prison, Sing Sing, N. Y.; L. von Bar, professor at Göttingen, and L. Paulian, France. The latter accompanied his letter with a pamphlet, in which he recommended the creation of an International Prison Library. This question was referred to the third section.

The letter of Sir Walter Crofton, the originator of the Irish prison system, was read at length and highly interested the assembly. He expressed his great regret at his inability to attend the congress and take part in its work. He said that the interest in penitentiary questions in England had decreased for the reason that these questions had

had their solution in the institutions of their country which had given satisfactory results. He recalled the fact that it was 30 years ago when he introduced in Ireland the progressive, or good-conduct system, which had produced good effects and yet had not been adopted in England until about 10 years ago. If it takes England so long a time to adopt a system from one of its kingdoms, it is easy to understand why Russia has not advanced more rapidly in her reforms. He bears testimony to the fact that the report of Mr. Wraskoy on Russian prisons proves the advance that Russia has made in prison reform, and closed by expressing hopes for the success of the congress.

Mr. Foinitzky moved that a dispatch be sent to Sir Walter Crofton, the illustrious author of the Irish prison system, as a mark of respect. Mr. Wraskoy supported the proposition, adding that he had intended to present it himself, and now asked to include in the motion the names of all persons invited who have not been able to attend. The proposition was adopted by acclamation.

Mr. Wraskoy continued to speak and recalled the name of the noted men lost to penitentiary science since the last session and spoke especially of Mr. Almquist, inspector-general of the prisons of Sweden, and Baron Holtzendorff. On the request of the president the assembly arose in honor of the memory of the illustrious dead. Dr. Riggenbach, chaplain of the penitentiary of Basle, spoke as follows:

Mr. PRESIDENT AND COLLEAGUES: I have learned, not without emotion, that yesterday, on the occasion of the solemn opening of the congress, His Excellency Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy placed a crown on the tomb of a celebrated champion of prison reform in Russia. I wish to speak of Walter Venning, of whom our colleague, Mr. Salomon, said in his learned addrsss that he joined to a heart tender as a woman's a will of iron and an indefatigable activity. I am confident that every member of congress will love to join in rendering homage to the memory of a man who has devoted his life and his labors to his work in a time less favorable than ours. I propose that in thanking our respected president for so delicate an attention and so noble an act, that the members join in a mark of respect by rising in their seats in memory of the brave Walter Venning.

The assembly heartily united in this manifestation of esteem.

DISCUSSIONS IN THE SECTIONS.

The three sections began their discussions in their respective halls June 16 and continued the same until and including the 22d, each confining itself to the questions of the programme appropriate to the section. The minutes of debates are in the hands of the secretary general for publication in the proceedings of the congress.

The manner in which these discussions were carried on may be understood to some extent by giving a brief account of the first discussion on the first or penal section. This section opened Monday, June 16, at 2 p. m. Mr. Spasowicz, assistant reporter, opened the discussion of the first question of the programme. He read a prepared summary of the conclusions of Messrs. Reynaud, Lammasch, Dr. Starke, and Dr.

Tagantzeff, and the Jurisprudence Society of St. Petersburg, and submitted his conclusions by motion. This was followed by a debate by Messrs. Poustoroslew, Reynaud, Starke, and Dreyfus. There seemed to be quite a divergence of opinion, Messrs. Spasowicz, Poustoroslew, and Starke pronouncing in favor of the negative, Messrs. Reynaud and Dreyfus on the contrary inclined to the affirmative. The president considered that the views as expressed could be harmonized, and suggested an amendment which was made, and thus amended the resolution of Mr. Spasowicz was unanimously adopted by the section. As the resolution is in substance embraced in the conclusions of the general assembly it is unnecessary to produce it here.

The assistant reporter was authorized to present the conclusions reached to the general assembly.

Then the second question of the programme was taken up and considered. Mr. Sliosberg, assistant reporter, gave a summary of the reports of Messrs. Heintze, Canonico, Lilienthal, Motet, and Baer, and presented and moved his resolution of conclusions. Then followed speaking on the motion by Messrs. Woulfert, Canonico, Brusa, Pesoina, Galovinsky, Neckliondoff, and Drill. The discussion was not completed at the time of adjournment and was to be continued the following day.

In this way the working hours from the 16th to the 21st, inclusive, were occupied by the discussions of the sections, generally in the forenoons when conclusions were adopted which were presented to the general assembly in the afternoons and there were again discussed, sometimes amended and then adopted. To give even a summary of these debates, which were often animated and able, would require considerable space. It is doubtful, too, whether the debates would show as well as the preliminary reports and the conference addresses the better formulated and maturer ideas regarding penitentiary science. Hence the conference addresses in full or in abstract have been given in this report, and some of the reports and abridgements of others on some of the more important questions in each of the sections, penal, reformatory, and preventive. These will show to some extent the tendency of European thought in the development of penal science, a subject that has attractions for a very few, but which has an importance it would be well if all appreciated.

The conferences were generally held in the evening. Some were omitted as it was found impossible to find time for more by reason of the banquets and other courtesies extended to the members. These conferences were of special value as they brought out conspicuously the subject considered, and led to maturer deliberation of the question discussed.

First Section—Penal.—Question 2.

Dr. Motet on intoxication and crime.

The following is the report of Dr. A. Motet, medical expert of the tribunal and the court of Paris. The high standing of the author en-

titles his words to special weight, and his paper is reproduced in full. He writes on the second question of the first section as follows:

The alarming progress of intemperance has become for modern society a subject of grave anxiety. On all sides we seek for some means to arrest the overwhelming march of an evil which strikes at the same time the individual, the family, and society. The efforts of governments on one side and of temperance associations on the other have secured only incomplete results. Must we seek in special legislation severe penalties against drunkenness as a remedy for an evil which takes on the proportions of a scourge? This is the question that the commission of organization of the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg has presented for consideration.

The reply would be easy, if it related to simple intoxication or to habitual drunkenness, to those persons who in England or in America are known as "habitual drunkards." But the consumption of alcohol of commerce has singularly modified the character of intemperance for nearly half a century. For the reeling drunkard, filling the street with his songs, more noisy than dangerous, is substituted the alcoholist, undergoing poisonous and often convulsive action from alcoholic liquors of all species, as varied in their names as in their composition, all alike terrible in their effects. The first gorges himself with wine; his stomach, revolting against the enormous quantity of liquids, expels them, there are increased urinary secretions, and sleep, profound and heavy, terminates a debauch without grave consequences. The second drinks less, but what he drinks is bad.

The drunkard tends more and more to become quarrelsome, aggressive, brutal, and the number of assaults by persons intoxicated has increased to a remarkable degree.

Owing to the fact that intoxication is more rapid and more profound the question is singularly complicated; it presents itself under a double aspect—that of the necessary repression of a vice which has become a social danger, and that of the valuation of the physical, intellectual, and moral state of the individual whom the law should reach.

It appears, then, difficult to us, to-day, to reduce to simple terms a question which admits extended unfolding. The legislature should not neglect to examine all points of the problem, at the risk of allowing, in practice, most serious difficulties to arise. Without pretending to formulate a solution, in a penal point of view, we believe that we would do a useful work in presenting to the prison congress some general considerations upon the various conditions of "alcoholism," which clinical study has enabled us to distinguish, one from the other.

If the French law is mute on the question of excuse drawn from the state of intoxication of the author of the crime or misdemeanors, if there be no fixed law, the judges in the mean time have shown according to the circumstances more or less severity, and the court of appeals has several times spoken in the line of energetic repression. In the works of our jurists, our criminal law writers, there are not less than two very different currents of opinion. The one takes no account of the intoxication and systematically considers only the offense; the other, more indulgent, sees in the delinquent in a state of drunkenness an irresponsible agent, an unconscious machine. Others, finally, establishing varieties in the degree, in the form of intoxication, mitigate more or less the criminal character of the act and exonerate the accused from a part, more or less considerable, of the penalty.

By the indulgent the state of intoxication is considered as one of transient mental alienation; they show the existing analogies between the phenomena of drunkenness and those which are usually met in mania or in general paralysis; that intoxication is simply an error.

It does not seem to us possible to compare the drunken with the insane. "Fools do not wish" to intoxicate themselves; it is necessary to desire it. The insane often undergoes without sense an evil he has no power to withdraw from. The drunkard, on the contrary, has sought and produced intoxication; his mental faculties are im-

paired temporarily by a cause which has none of the fatality of hereditary predispositions, degeneration, etc.

For others, the attentive examination of the facts has led them to examine if at the moment of the commission of the offense the intoxication was complete or incomplete.

And distinguishing three degrees, they considered as responsible, that is to say, punishable, those who had reached only the first degree of intoxication; they extenuated the responsibility of those who had reached the second degree, and admitted the irresponsibility of the third. This was the doctrine of Friedrich and of Hoffbauer.

In practice, these distinctions above all those between the first and second are nearly impossible to justify. Mark has said this, and all those who are occupied with these special studies agree that they lead to nothing certain. "Theoretically" said Lentz, "we can establish this division of intoxication into three successive periods, but practically and especially in medical jurisprudence, these divisions can have no value and could not serve to fix the limits we seek."

Where then can we find the elements of a rigorous scientific estimate of the mental condition of the delinquent alcoholist? When will magistrates be permitted to inflict on him a just penalty? When should they consider him guiltless of a criminal act?

The question is the most delicate, the most difficult to decide. It is a difficult question for medical experts, and we must say that it is impossible to furnish a formula which can be applied to all cases. It is only by an individual examination, extending to the entire mental history of the delinquent in the state of intoxication, that one can arrive at a positive opinion. It is in proceeding this way that medical experts have been led to study intoxication under two aspects, very plain, very clear, and to distinguish simple from pathological intoxication.

Simple intoxication is that which prostrates a man, otherwise healthy, after alcoholic excess. We do not wish to enlarge on the varieties of simple drunkenness, although the nature of the poisonous agent plays a great rôle in the evolution of possible accidents. We hold to this precise determination—that temporary drunkenness may be avoided by individuals. Hence the act is voluntary and the consequences are chargeable to intoxication whether or not the drunkenness be habitual. The magistrates can then proportion the punishment to the antecedents of the prisoner. But should we hold to these elementary ideas? We think not. It is proper to inquire if drunkenness is produced in conditions such as the delinquent undergoes without having sought it. We have had to examine several individuals in special conditions; one, among others, a butcher boy, who descended to the cellar with his employer to put a barrel of wine into bottles. The alcoholic vapors intoxicated him. He was certain he was not drunk. When he ascended and the air struck him he suddenly became affected by the alcohol. One of his comrades joked him, and he flew into a passion, and seizing a knife on the stall wounded his companion, fortunately, slightly. Being arrested he submitted to an examination, and we had no hesitation in considering his intoxication as accidental and involuntary. Our opinion was accepted by the judges who were familiar with all the facts of the case. Induced intoxication is not less important to determine, and if the examination is more delicate than in the preceding case, it is not impossible in the mean time to establish the fact that the delinquent has undergone a training in which his will had no part. It is true that these cases are rare, as well as those in which drunkenness is premeditated, that is to say, when the criminal has sought in alcoholic excitement the resolution he would not have had without it.

We should indicate the distinctions. They seem to us to command the greatest reserve in the formula of an article of the penal code which specially relates to intoxication. In France, Chauveau, Faustin-Hélie, Rossi and Le Sellyer, consider that the man who commits a crime or a misdemeanor in a state of drunkenness may well be civilly responsible for the damage which he has caused by his negligence or imprudence,

but according to these writers he would not be criminally liable. But this opinion has never been accepted by the court of appeals. "Drunkenness is a voluntary and reprehensible fact, and it can never constitute an excuse which morality or law will accept." Mark and Tardieu are of this opinion. It is also ours. Simple intoxication is punishable, because it can, if unpunished, begin to-morrow the same excesses of which the consequences will be to compromise again the interests of society and individuals. Also we prefer the silence of the French law. It permits the judges to estimate the mental condition of the delinquent, to determine the form and intensity of the drunkenness and the nature of the poisonous agent. It is not rare to meet persons of defective cerebral organization, whose condition on one side is attribable to alcoholic intoxication, and on the other to mental defects of the accused whose resistance to alcohol is less than in one who has an organization less imperfect. We do not wish to say that these persons will always be irresponsible for offenses committed by them in a state of intoxication. There are many among them who know that they can not drink without danger. They should not expose themselves to alcoholic intoxication. But there are many also whose moral and mental debasement especially diminishes the resistance of the appetite for alcoholic drinks. They are found on the boundary, which is not well defined, between simple and pathological intoxication.

Pathological intoxication. This kind of intemperance differs from the preceding in this, that the preëxisting morbid condition added to the usual symptoms, acutely aggravated by alcohol, assumes a character immediately dangerous. According to the expression of Lentz "alcohol lights the fire whose ravages will be more extended in proportion as the materials upon which it feeds are more combustible."

And there exist besides insane, properly called, imbeciles and epileptics, with whom drunkenness is especially deplorable, a numerous class of degenerate persons, bearing heavily the burden of pathological heredity, capricious in their ideas and in their acts. These are true maladies in which the intoxicating action of alcohol manifests itself more frequently by dangerous impulses. These are the unbalanced, the hereditary drunkards, who cause the most serious embarrassment. We repeat here what we have had occasion to write and to say many times already, that for these alcoholists of a special kind of whom we mark the uniformity, suffering from mental disability without power to formulate fixed conclusions, it is as impossible to take severe judicial measures as lasting administrative action in the present state of legislation. If they are confined in an asylum they are cured from the attack which exhausts itself as soon as the poison is eliminated. Cured from a transient mental trouble, they ask to be discharged, or often interested but imprudent friends make the request and the physician of the asylum is not authorized to refuse. He yields, regretting his inability; he foresees the early return, perhaps, of the same disorders under the influence of the same cause, and the law does not permit him to extend protection, social defense.

It is for this class of alcoholized delinquents that we desire the adoption of more severe measures, those which are possible to take to-day, but I dare not insist, fearing to call up an order of considerations foreign to the programme of the commission of congress, which is less occupied, if we understand it well, with the administrative, than with the judicial and penal question of intemperance.

The considerations which we submit to the congress have aimed, above all, to separate simple from pathological intoxication. We have perhaps treated the question more as a physician than as a lawyer. We have to excuse ourselves for want of sufficient ability for easily putting things in the proper place. However, we believe we are authorized to present the following conclusions:

1. In the interest of social order, of family protection, of individual preservation, voluntary intoxication should be considered as a misdemeanor and severely repressed with increase of punishment in the case of relapse.

2. The habitual drunkard should be deprived of his civil rights and his removal from office should be secured by the public minister. And as a corollary we add that persons affected by delirious attacks, active or subactive, from alcoholic intoxication, should be maintained in a special establishment during a long time. Their discharge should be postponed until every trace of intoxication has disappeared and an early relapse will not be feared.

To give to our thought a more definite form we will say:

Drunkenness is punishable, as well as misdemeanors or crimes committed under its influence, when it is classed as simple and when it is manifestly in the power of the delinquent to avoid it.

It is punishable with increase of punishment when the intoxication has been sought to incite the commission of a crime or misdemeanor.

Drunkenness is punishable, but with a degree of mitigation which belongs to the magistrate to determine, in the case of persons of feeble intelligence whose ability to resist alcoholic desires is diminished by the inferior condition of their mental organization. They should not be exculpated when they know that they can not drink without danger, and this is the case more frequently than is supposed.

Crimes or misdemeanors can not be punished when they are committed during delirium, acute or subacute, from a paroxism of alcoholism. It is the same in the case of chronic alcoholism, when the definite cerebral injuries have compromised the integrity of the organ and determined the durable disorder of its functions.

Mr. Tancred Canonico, an eminent senator of the Kingdom of Italy, and one of the most able and prominent members of the congress, presented a lengthy report on the second question of the first section. The following are the conclusions on penal legislation affecting intemperance which he submitted to the wisdom of the congress:

1. Intoxication in itself can never be punished when it is involuntary or accidental.

When voluntary intoxication is public it should be punished as dangerous to morality and public tranquility, and the degree of the punishment should be higher when the intoxication is habitual.

Public intoxication, by itself, although voluntary, does not have the real character of a misdemeanor; it constitutes only an offense, and should be punished by police penalties only.

These penalties should also be applied to those who voluntarily exhibit a drunken man in public, as well as wine-shop keepers who give alcoholic drinks to men who are plainly drunk, or to children who are evidently under 14 years of age.

2. In the case of the commission of a crime or a misdemeanor while intoxicated: When the intoxication is complete, if it is involuntary or accidental, the agent is never penally responsible. If it is voluntary, and more so if it is habitual, and the agent had not contemplated the criminal act before intoxication, the crime or misdemeanor committed during the intoxication should be charged and punished as the result of an error.

If, on the contrary, the agent had projected the crime or misdemeanor before that time and if he became intoxicated to commit the offense or to make an excuse for it, the crime or misdemeanor should be punished as the result of fraud, but with a punishment considerably less than the ordinary penalty.

When intoxication is incomplete, the crime or misdemeanor committed at the time is chargeable as an offense, though in a less degree than in complete drunkenness. It does not matter if the intoxication has been voluntary or involuntary, if in the case of voluntary intoxication the agent has contemplated the criminal act before intoxication.

In the mean time, to determine the extent of decrease in the usual punishment, it is

necessary to estimate either the degree of intoxication or the coöperation of the will in the act of intoxication, and of the voluntary use made of drunkenness as a means to faciliate the perpetration of the projected crime.

Senator Canonico, after stating his conclusions, adds the following at the close of his discourse:

Such is the solution which I submit to the congress on the question of penal legislation relative to intemperance. But we should not forget that the law can only give general directions in fixing clearly the basis of essential right for each conviction. It belongs to the judges to seize the spirit of the law and to apply it properly in each individual case. There are many who believe that the prosperity of a state is assured when it has good laws. Good laws are necessary, without doubt, but that is not all. The true guaranty of the regular and salutary operation of social authority is in the personal qualities of the public officers. The law is made for man, that is to say, for a moral being, one in his nature but multiplied in his individual variety. The law can not become a vital element of society except in the different special cases it is applied in a manner corresponding to the different conditions of each person. And this can not be done in penal matters, except by magistrates who are themselves the living incarnation of law, who to the exact knowledge of positive law, to a right sentiment of its spirit, to zeal for justice and public security, unite a sincere and impartial love for the man whom they are called to judge, so that they will not consider in advance each prisoner as an enemy of society, but retain the liberty to recognize cases which are not uncommon, where the accused is more unfortunate than guilty.

The commission of the Jurisprudence Society of St. Petersburg presented numerous reports on the various questions submitted. Mr. Sliosberg, advocate, of St. Petersburg, on behalf of that commission, presented a report on the second question.

The following are his conclusions:

1. The state of intoxication, considered in itself, should not constitute a crime; it only calls for repression where it is accompanied by violations of order, safety, and good manners.

2. The utility of legislative provisions establishing measures of restraint in regard to subjects continually or habitually given to drunkenness should not be denied; the provisions having only a repressive character for those cases where there is habitual intoxication, the person will then become a public charge or, above all, will become a beggar or a drunkard.

3. It is urgent that the proprietors of retail wine shops should be held responsible for the sale of strong liquors to individuals who are manifestly already intoxicated.

4. The state of intoxication can affect the punishment as an extenuating circumstance, but the criminal law should not give a general definition in cases of this kind; it deals only with general provisions concerning the punishments and the circumstances on which they depend.

5. The condition of the drunkard should never aggravate the punishment, except in the case of intoxication premeditated for the purpose of committing an offense.

Mr. Charles Baer, counselor of the Oberlandesgericht in Carlsruhe, closes his report or address on the first part of the second question of the first section with the following conclusions:

1. Intoxication can not be considered as a general excuse for crime.

2. Except where the intoxication is brought on by design, for the purpose of committing a premeditated crime, and where the criminal result of the intoxication could

have been foreseen, the penal responsibility of the delinquent can not be admitted if the intoxication suppresses the free will of the author of the crime. The fact that intoxication is chargeable to the fault of the latter modifies nothing in principle.

I do not discuss the controverted question whether it can be admitted that free will is excluded by the complete disorder of the senses while consciousness exists, or whether free will is excluded by the suppression of consciousness. It is not desirable that this question should be regulated by law, because such solution by the legislature could never prevent that of the question of free will and the loss of consciousness by the courts in a manner free from all legislative influence.

3. If we treat intoxication as "delictum sui generis," occasioned by the fault of the drinker and instigating offenses, these offenses committed in a state of drunkenness and irresponsibility chargeable to the offender can not be taken into consideration by themselves, and only as natural circumstances to influence the extent of the punishment.

4. Accidental intoxication, not chargeable to the drinker, excludes culpability.

As to the second part of the second question relative to mitigation or aggravation of the penalty when the crime has been committed in a state of drunkenness, Mr. Baer spoke also at some length.

SECOND SECTION—QUESTION 6.

MR. BROCKWAY ON INCORRIGIBILITY.

"Are we at liberty to declare any criminals or delinquents to be incorrigible, and, if so, what means should be used to protect society against them?"

Complete protection against incorrigible criminals requires that their crimes shall not only cease, but that they shall exert no evil influence for crimes by others, and that they shall be restrained in such a manner that no public expense is incurred. To incapacitate by destroying them would certainly afford protection as against their further crimes, and, once accomplished, would relieve society from any further cost for their maintenance; but, possibly, the evil effect of life-taking for incorrigibility might prove worse than to permit them to live and pursue their criminal calling. There is much reason to believe that a frequent infliction of the death penalty for crimes has a debasing effect upon society at large, and we are not at all sure that the fact of incorrigibility should be taken as prima facie evidence of mental defect or aberration in the criminal. In which case, it may be said that the state of public sentiment which, insensible or indifferent to the cruelty of it, destroys the life of incorrigible criminals, would also put to death the incurably insane and remediless defectives of every kind, indicating thus a state of barbarism favorable to crimes, the crimes and the criminals in turn actually contributing to the public sentiment that produces them.

Crime is savagery projected into civilization, but it is civilization itself that classifies as crimes the cruelty, brutality, and robbery which, in a different state of society, would be tolerated without complaint. Civilization, while seeking to repress crime, does at the same time greatly multiply the incentives to it, and by the competition and inequalities of life actually creates here and there conditions favorable to the production of criminals. If, then, crime is inevitable, it is of necessity inextricable, and so there can not be of course any complete protection from incorrigible criminals. If it is impossible, as it is unwise, to utterly destroy incorrigibles, then they should be restrained by their imprisonment.

It is believed, from the best information at hand, that the deportation of criminals to convict colonies is not the best imprisonment; indeed, to such as have had

opportunity only to observe the operation of the system from a distance, it seems an unreasonable one, and amusing that it has been so extensively in use. If the purpose of deportation is to deter others from crimes through fear of severing, by this penalty, the attachment of inhabitation, it can hardly be effective with the incorrigible class of criminals, because they, as a class, are not very strongly bound to place and home. They go away with gladness, or at least with indifference, if they are only journeying to new and untried surroundings. It is probable also that the desire to resume their associations with boon companions and even criminal associates already sent out to the criminal colony, having in some sense prepared the way, may be attractive, and with the criminally inclined class in society may often prove an incentive to actual crime. We are told, too, that the best administration of convict colonies has not, in the history of them, very completely prevented crimes by incorrigible criminals—not even during their period of colonial imprisonment. Moreover, if the conditions of imprisonment do not actually increase criminal tendencies, it is scarcely possible that any effective repression is maintained; in which case imprisonment in colonies can not contribute to diminish the danger of fresh crimes by the criminal on his release.

Any good degree of protection from incorrigible criminals by their imprisonment, whether imprisoned at home or abroad, must include, (*a*) that they be sentenced under the so-called indeterminate sentence principles; (*b*) that they be confined in prisons separate from the corrigible class; (*c*) that they be kept mainly within a prison inclosure with the least possible opportunity to communicate with outside persons or to know of current public affairs; (*d*) that when the public sentiment is enlightened enough to allow it they shall be employed at productive work, carried on for the earnings of it, and (*e*) the restraint and treatment to which they are subjected should be that which affords the best public protection without having any regard to purpose of punishment, whether retributive or deterrent.

The proposed separate prisons for incorrigibles would naturally form the lowest condition for the convicts of a State—the lowest in a graduated series of prison establishments. It is not difficult to organize and conduct such a prison so as to insure with reasonable certainty the safe custody of the criminals, but to avoid an evil influence of this prison upon the corrigible convicts undergoing reformative treatment in the prisons of a higher grade is not so easily accomplished. Unquestionably it is true that the incentives to improvement supplied to the better class of prisoners by what must of necessity be painfully sustained efforts and activities are likely to be considerably neutralized by the attractions of ease and quietness of convicts confined in the prisons for incorrigibles, where efforts for their betterment are much relaxed or abandoned, since by bad conduct and consequent transfer to the prisons for incorrigibles relief may be had from the exactions of reformative treatment.

On the other hand, it is an error to suppose that privation and hardships, introduced and intended solely to counteract such an effect, will, in the absence of a real benevolent purpose, be serviceable. Such hardships excite, both with the criminals and with the public at large, first, sympathy with the sufferer; then pity; and often a feeling of bitterness toward the government—a feeling which is, wherever it exists, opposed to the reformation of criminals and to the peace and security of society. For such reasons, and because the selection of incorrigible criminals must probably include among them some who are corrigible, this separate prison for the lowest class of criminals should, like the prisons of a better grade, compel the prisoner to pursue the processes of improving themselves, even though no reformations are expected to be accomplished among them. To this extent, at least, such processes should be enforced: The prisoner must be employed at productive work, so organized that he is obliged to earn the essentials of his own subsistence; earning what he has to live upon, and, within due limits, having for himself what he earns. Most stringent disciplinary regulations should be enforced—regulations that reach to very minute matters, to the personal habits and bearings of each, and to prevent

to the utmost all communication with each other and with any person outside of the prison. It is important, also, that these prisoners should be subjected to intellectual educational tasks, to be graduated to the maximum capacity of each, respectively. As to the particular prison system best for the imprisonment of incorrigibles, there may be good grounds for preferring the cellular system to any other, but, lest such a concession be misunderstood, it is here accompanied with the declaration that the cellular system is not preferable for the treatment of corrigible criminals, for their reformation and their proper preparation for the duties, the temptations, and the competitions of successful citizenship after their release from prison.

While so little is known of the philosophy of forming and reforming moral character, there need be no hesitation in affirming that some criminals are incorrigible. Whenever it shall be possible to completely correct the crookedness of all criminals, then it will be possible also to prevent the committing of crimes; and when crimes are altogether prevented we shall have an ideal state of society—a very millennial period begun. Such a consummation can scarcely be expected in our day, if only the rate of previous progress is to be maintained. If, after nearly nineteen centuries of human society gestant with the proclaimed principles of divine Fatherhood and human brotherhood, there is nothing better to show than the selfishness, the inequalities, the wretchedness of human suffering, and the legalized crimes of class against class that characterize our civilization, then, surely, the millennium is not at hand, ideal society is remote, crime is likely to continue, and some criminals must remain incorrigible. And does not all experience with criminals confirm such a conclusion?

This sixth question might be disposed of in a single sentence, to the effect that there are incorrigible criminals against whom society can have no complete protection, and that the best disposition of these is to perpetually imprison them. But by what test shall it be determined that particular criminals may be properly consigned to the incorrigible class?

The true answer to this interrogatory is intricate if not impossible. Certain of them are easily discoverable, but not all. Surprises await every searcher in this field. The incorrigible of to-day may turn out, when released, to be the safe citizen, and the most promising prisoner sometimes proves to be perverse. Very defective characters, if well situated, sail smoothly along, but in periods of unusual excitement they are easily thrown out of adjustment with their surroundings into criminal conduct and associations.

It is believed that the most satisfactory selection of incorrigibles is by a wise process of eliminating from among them those that are corrigible. This requires a reformative system of prison treatment for all, and involves, primarily, much reform of the criminal law and practice; important changes in the prison structures; greatly improved prison administration, and a more enlightened public sentiment to sustain a strictly scientific treatment of criminals, unembarrassed by partisanship or considerations of personal power or patronage.

Statistics purporting to show the percentage of criminals who are incorrigible are almost always very defective and unreliable. If, as it seems to be commonly construed, the term "incorrigible" is made to include all recidivists, misdemeanants as well as felons, then a very large proportion of prisoners belong to this category. Referring now to the prisoners of New York, if there be included those having been previously arrested, those imprisoned in juvenile prisons, in jails, and in county workhouses, as well as those previously in prison for felonies, it would not be an exaggeration to estimate the recidivists at 60 per cent. of the whole; and, no doubt, a similar basis for estimates would show as unfavorably for any civilized country in the world. Not all these recidivists are necessarily incorrigible. A more perfect system of laws and prisons and a better administration of them, may, in connection with other agencies, reduce the ratio of incorrigible criminals in the prisons of New York to 20 per cent., and, perhaps, even to 10 per cent. of the mass. The final residuum of criminals incapable of rehabilitation will be composed of three general and three specific subdivisions, namely:

1. Defectives, such as diseased, deformed, feeble-minded, drunkards, and others of epileptic diathesis.

2. The discouraged and hopeless class, notably those bereft of home very early in life and who are reared in benevolent institutions, "indigent faint souls, past corporal toil."

3. Exceptionally depraved persons, moral monsters, who are of unsound mind, but not yet generally recognized as decidedly insane.

It is often apparent in criminals that there is a likeness of mental habitude and physical power; the bodily tissue transforms itself into a criminal type until, even without physical abnormity, the presence of the criminal communicates an impression of repulsion or danger. One of the brightest minds among a number of young felons was tabernacled in a deformed body. He was a common street gamin, but was naturally philosophical, and had received in prison a good education, and was much improved in every way. On one occasion he was heard to remark as follows: "The deformities of my body but reveal the defects of my mind and moral character. As my body is asymmetral, so my mind is incommensurable. When my mood is a good one, then I am ashamed that I was ever otherwise; and, also, when evil is uppermost within me, then do I reproach myself for previous virtuous impulses."

Bodily disease operates, sometimes, to develop a natural animalism into the worst of bestiality, and an honest, respectable citizen when sober, becomes a thief when intoxicated. There is a neurosis, actual if obscure, which is a very common cause of abnormal impulse, feeble-mindedness, and diminished will-power, that characterize some incorrigible criminals. There is, too, a lowered vital tone, and absence of ambition to be or to do, specially observable with tramps and thieves, which may be fairly traced to degeneration derived from the circumstances of childhood, especially when much time is spent without homes and in charitable institutions. Such a case comes just now under my care. Orphaned and consigned to church guild at 5 years of age, spending the years until 16 between guild, juvenile asylum, and house of refuge. He then served nine several short terms in a prison for adult misdemeanors, when, at 22, he is committed for a felony, with a possible maximum period of imprisonment of 10 years. Though shapely enough and naturally capable enough, reared in one of the best of American cities, he honestly admits that he has always been dishonest, never having legitimately earned even one dollar. Living in society, he is not assimilated into society, but, as rubbish floats upon the surface of the stream, so he has been buffeted about on the surface of society, until he has imbibed or evolved a criminal psychical habitude which constitutes him an incorrigible.

Another phase of incorrigibleness is that of criminals whose spiritual faculties, that have to do with the supersensible world, are apparently abnormal. A sound mind in a sound body associated with habitual malevolence. Some evil afflatus inthralls them; minister as we may to the mind disease, no human alchemy has yet been found for healing such as these.

There are other incorrigible criminals not to be properly grouped with either of the before-named divisions; not necessarily recidivists, but prisoners for a single sentence, living afterwards in crime and criminal associations.

Instance.—W. T. He was of good family, possessed a good education, lived in affluence, his associates were good, and his early life was exemplary. In youth he became religious and joined the church, where his parents were also members; he was active and doubtless sincere in the religious work of his church and city. He married most satisfactorily, and his attractive home was, with the son born to him, all he could desire. His crime was forgery, by which he ruined himself, his own and his father's family. After his crime, previous to detection, he addressed, on a religious topic, hundreds of prisoners in the local prison of his city. His sincerity on this occasion was never doubted, and subsequent study of his character is convincing that

he could be sincerely religious and at the same time a scoundrel, without himself perceiving the incongruity.

Another instance.—"H." A man 30 or more years of age—a German, educated and accomplished in music and military matters, of attractive personal appearance, polite, obliging, generous, and sincere. He is not dissipated, and has been imprisoned but once; yet he is an incorrigible criminal. He marries often without himself intending it. The good qualities of his character, with his vanity and improvidence, bring him soon to finessing for funds, when he resorts to forgery and fraud without considering, or at least appreciating, the wrong and danger of it. He does not discriminate between using another's property legitimately and illegitimately; therefore he commits crime and runs away, to go over a similar experience in some new society.

Professional criminals may also be classed as exceptional incorrigibles, for the number of professional criminals in American prisons is not so great as is usually supposed. Probably not more than 10 per cent. of State prisoners in New York can be of this class. Professional criminals develop out of all the other classes of criminals, and their number is to be minimized by treating all prisoners of every phase, especially juvenile and misdemeanant criminals, for their reformation with a wise and effective prison system.

The study of incorrigible criminals is not advisable for those who are administering prisons. The habit of mind that sees in prisoners always that which is bad unfits largely for calling out in their life and character any germs of goodness that remain. That common and proper human instinct, which abhors the wrong and detests the wrong-doer, is likely to be overdeveloped with prison officials who dwell much on the character faults of their prisoners, and it is an easy transition from the habitual, hopeful sentiment, viz, that all are susceptible to soul improvement, to a pessimistic depression and detestation of criminals, which considers convicts as irrecoverable scamps. Unless we ourselves have hope, we are incapable of inspiring hope in our prisoners, and it is the exhilaration of hopefulness that characterizes this initiation and progress of genuine reformative progress.

There is a sense in which nothing that lives is incapable of betterment, and so, strictly speaking, there are no incorrigible criminals. If it is possible to grasp the thought and cherish it, we should endeavor to discover in the very worst characters some spark of humanity that unites us all in ties of relationship, some secret soul chamber where superhuman influences may find lodgment, and so, with good leaven, pervade the whole man. At least we may find in our sphere a field for most fascinating scientific research and experiment.

I record it as my conviction, after nearly a lifetime spent with and for criminals, that, alike for all, corrigible and incorrigible, the aim to accomplish reformations is the true one. It most surely supplies all possible repression upon the criminal classes in society, it best determines the really incorrigible criminal, and leads up to the wisest system of prison treatment for them when they are discovered and separated from those who are corrigible. And the aim of reformations is absolutely essential to any good degree of public protection from crimes through the reformation of criminals.

VARIOUS REPORTERS ON INCORRIGIBILITY.

There were several other reports submitted on the sixth question of the second section, and among them one by Mr. Georges Dubois, advocate of the court of appeals of Paris, former magistrate, and a member of the council of direction of the Société Générale des Prisons. He closes by saying:

We sum up this report by formulating the following conclusions:

1. Experience demonstrates that a certain number of delinquents and habitual criminals must be considered as incorrigible, in the common acceptation of the word, and treated as such by penal law.

2. The principal criterion by which incorrigibility can be recognized consists in the persistent repetition of the same offenses which are inspired by the same moral causes.

3. The same treatment can not be adapted to simple habitual delinquents, whose perseverance in evil is caused by a distaste for labor and by a lack of moral energy, and to professional criminals who are deprived of moral sense and who are voluntarily rebellious against society.

4. It would be expedient to commit the first class, after the expiration of their sentences, to workhouses of a repressive character, and banish the second class for life to a colony distant from the metropolis, after they have undergone cellular imprisonment for their recent crime, where they will be subject to hard labor with a rigorous discipline. The countries which do not have colonial possessions could maintain incorrigible criminals after the expiration of their imprisonment by life detention under a régime especially severe with the same obligatory labor.

In this writer we meet with an advocate of transportation, a Frenchman whose country for many years has exiled criminals and continues to do so to this day. So much has been said of the Russian system that it is possible the world may have forgotten that other nations also send convicts into exile. As the writer touches on some of the principal arguments in favor of transportation, it may be interesting to note the reasons he gives for upholding it. In the course of his paper he says:

Finally let us reflect that the penalty of transportation, which prevails in Finland, France, Portugal, and in Russia, and which was only abandoned by England because of the powerful opposition of the colonies where it was enforced, has received to a certain extent the sanction of experience, and is not a new institution and without intimate relations with prison work. The disastrous results of transportation to Van Diemen's land have been explained by the very defective conditions in which it was organized and by the scandalous abuses arising under it. But the experience of Australia presented all the advantages that the metropolis and, in the mean time, the colony itself could draw from transportation wisely applied. The parliamentary commission of 1856, discarding the conclusions of the commission of 1838 which had condemned transportation, concluded as follows:

"The punishment of transportation is more effectual and deterrent, better adapted to the ultimate reformation of convicts, and more beneficial to the country than any other secondary punishment for serious crimes which has yet been tried." The adversaries of transportation have claimed that England discontinued this punishment by reason of its inconveniences and intrinsic dangers. At the Congress of Stockholm, Dr. Mouat and Sir George Arney, delegate from New Zealand, have done justice to this historical fiction by recalling, with interesting details, that transportation to Australia had succeeded in a penal point of view; that the British Government was strongly attached to it and persisted in it until the opposition of the colony finally triumphed. Dr. Mouat added that in the Indies, to his personal knowledge, transportation had been an entire success.

Transportation was introduced in the French penal code about a century ago, September 25, 1791, and applied to vagrants by the law of 24th vendémiaire, year 2, overrating in this order of ideas, as in many others, reforms to the point of imperiling success.

When the inquiry into prison management was ordered, in 1872, by the National Assembly, the court of appeals and all appellant courts with one exception approved the principle of transportation of recidivists (old offenders) and presented no differences of opinion upon the conditions of its application. In 1878 the commissioner of the superior council of prisons presented also the same views.

It is true that transportation cannot be of universal application, and that the countries which do not have any colony will find it impossible to have recourse to it. This consideration would not hold with a people who have possessions beyond the sea, more or less distant. We have already remarked that under the influence of the breath of colonial expansion which moves across Europe, the number of nations without colonial establishments is constantly diminishing. Germany and Italy, for example, who could rank in this class in the Congress of Stockholm, have entered the general movement. And since we have alluded to Italy, let us remember that that country has established a kind of transportation to a short distance in creating penitentiaries in the neighboring island of Sicily. This transportation to islands, whence flight is difficult, and in which the condemned find themselves distant from the theater of their crimes, appears to us to realize, in default of distant colonies, the best treatment to inflict on incorrigible criminals.

We see how few are the nations which are prevented from their geographical position, as Switzerland and the Balkan States, from having recourse to transportation, or at least from the analogous transportation practiced in Italy. For these nations imprisonment for life is the only expedient to employ against incorrigible criminals. But it is understood that this imprisonment for life can only be undergone in part under the form of separate confinement. In effect, the duration of cellular detention is necessarily limited by the laws of humanity to a few years.

The maximum of ten years, adopted in Belgium, has never been surpassed and exceeds considerably the average duration of imprisonment in the other countries of Europe.

The dangers of an isolation as prolonged as that in Belgium, in the United States, and elsewhere reacts against the principles of the cellular system. It is thus that partisans, to the utmost, succeed in compromising success by developing the best institutions without discernment and without limit.

It would be necessary then that, after a probation in a prison cell, the incorrigible should be (in the absence of transportation) submitted to imprisonment in common for the rest of his life, at least to a conditional liberation which, his incorrigibility being conceded, could only take place under exceptional circumstances. And it is unnecessary to insist upon the danger to material and moral order presented by the massing of the worst malefactors in prisons in common.

Therefore transportation, which has at least the advantage of purging the soil of the metropolis and of removing convicts from the scene in which by their depravity they in turn deprave others, it appears to us should be preferred by every people who are possessed of colonies. We recommend, at least for those who would place incorrigibles where they could not injure others and have no other resource but imprisonment for life, to place them in special seclusion."

This is the exile system from the French standpoint. While writing this report the daily papers in the United States give an instance of the pardon of a criminal, by a Governor, on condition that the criminal would leave the State and never return. This kind of exile has been occasionally practiced in the United States. It has no existence in law, but grows out of the discretion given the Governor of the State to impose conditions he deems proper.

Mr. G. Alongi, director of the penitentiary of Favignana (Trapani), had a report on the sixth question of the second section and closes with the following:

But public opinion inspired by philanthropy is stronger than the law of selection, which convinces us that in the struggle for existence the weak and the savage (among whom it is necessary to place criminals) should be suppressed. Several codes, it is true, yet retain the death penalty, but its execution becomes more and more rare,

and Italy, which for 15 years has not executed a capital sentence, has lately abolished this penalty in compliance with public opinion. In the mean time it is necessary to replace the death penalty by another, and as it is impossible to find a full equivalent for death, it is necessary to choose and adopt one less severe. England and France have adopted transportation for life to colonies beyond the sea, but competent gentlemen have judged it to be inefficient and too expensive, and the general tendency has been to abolish this measure.

What, then, should we be satisfied with? We reply: with life imprisonment, cellular and forced labor; there is no other remedy. We kill dangerous animals, we confine furious lunatics, and it is necessary, then, that we imprison as well the criminal who, relapsing without cessation, shows himself to be incorrigible. Every convict should labor, and there is no want of useful work to do—such as lands to clear and cultivate. Our politicians are very compassionate concerning the mortality which prevails in prison colonies, but by an incredible inconsistency they give no heed to thousands of honest peasants who daily sacrifice their lives and whose sons increase the army of criminals. Theoretical economists fear that prison work applied on a vast scale will be disastrous to free labor; that it would be, perchance, more just and more economical to support and lodge gratuitously the criminals, while respectable people pay the expenses. I leave to others more competent than myself the task of refuting the arguments advanced against the work of prisoners. I affirm, however, that if the contrary exists, it is due to the small remuneration received for prison labor. Pay this labor the average price current for free labor, and the dangers feared will disappear. The compensation of the prisoners should be divided into three parts: One for their own support, the second for the education of their children, who are too often abandoned and who go to make up the prison population, towards which their innate tendencies carry them; and the third should be used to indemnify the victims of their crimes, who are often drawn to evil by poverty and by the impossibility of obtaining the indemnity which they have so much right to.

If I should set forth the moral and economic results of the proposed organizations of prison labor, I should exceed the limits assigned this report. It is certain that this system would directly prevent the relapse of criminals, and indirectly it would diminish their number, by contributing to a part of the expenses for the education of the many abandoned children, who to-day increase in the putrid fermentation of the streets and houses of the poor, where they learn prematurely those things it would be better they should always remain ignorant of.

Absolute isolation, then positive labor and better compensation, using of wages as we have said—this way and not otherwise will be found the true correction of incorrigibles and the diminution of crime and criminals and the relief of the enormous and useless expenses of the State.

Not false pity, but isolation and labor; this will bring peace and wellbeing to all, criminals included.

Mr. F. Ammetzboek, director of the penetentiary of Vridslöselille, Denmark, treated this question. He has been for over two years assistant director of a prison having 500 convicts under the régime "in common," for ten years the director of a cellular prison with 500 convicts, and for eight years a member of the executive committee of the patronage society connected with the last-named prison. This writer does not admit that a prisoner of sound mind can be classed as incorrigible. He says:

> I would not dare charge as incorrigible one of the 3,000 criminals who have been confided to my care. * * * During my career as a prison officer I have seen many criminals who offered, humanly speaking, characteristic signs of incorrigibility, who against every hope have reformed, and who now, and for a long time, have led respectable lives. * * * I believe that other prison and police officers, as well as philan-

throphists, can confirm the truth of my experience, and I hope that many will protest against the theory of incorrigibility and place in the balance their experience against purely abstract ideas.

The entire report is valuable, but only the conclusions can be inserted further. They are as follows:

1. That punishments of short duration should be abolished, or at least their application should be limited to fewer cases.

2. That the punishment of hard labor should be inflicted for one year at least, and that reduction for good behavior in the cell should be abolished.

3. That the punishment for relapse should be lengthened progressively and each time be more severe.

4. That the courts should constantly obtain from prisons information relative to relapses, a means which assumes such intelligent information from prison officers and employés that the courts can have confidence in their estimate.

5. That the work of patronage, the indispensable supplement of the end of the punishment, should be greatly encouraged by the state and individuals.

There were reports on question 6, section 2, by Mr. Sichart, director of the prison of Ludwigsburg, Wurtemburg; Prof. D. Gramantieri, advocate, in Urbino, Italy; M. S. Wahovitch, advocate of the court of appeals of Odessa, Russia; Mr. S. M. Latyschew, writer in the department of the minister of justice in St. Petersburg; Mr. Spasowicz, doctor of laws and advocate in St. Petersburg; and Mme. Concepcion Arenal, of Vigo, Spain. This last-named writer is one of the ablest and best known writers on all matters pertaining to penology that can be found in Europe. She has been an extensive contributor to the various international congressess, and her words are considered as high authority. The state of her health has not allowed her to attend the congresses. Her report on this subject covers 60 octavo pages and is treated in a masterly way. She writes under the following heads:

1. What do we understand by incorrigible?
2. Is incorrigible the same as not reformed?
3. By what rule can we declare a prisoner incorrigible?
4. Is there any relation between the character of the offense and the fact that the same person often repeats it?
5. Are there any incorrigibles? are they a peril to society?
6. Is there any social complicity in relapse?
7. What can be done with incorrigibles?

THE CONTRACT SYSTEM.

The question of contract labor, which came up under the first question of the second section, was one of the most practical and interesting which was discussed in the St. Petersburg Congress. This question is by no means settled in the United States. The experience of New York, referred to in this report, in changing from one system to another and then back again, shows the unsettled condition of opinion regarding this subject. The principal reason given in this country in favor of the contract system is, that it is more economical for the state. That argument has had great weight and has often determined the matter with

legislators in favor of the contract system. The question of the reformation of prisoners has always had a secondary consideration. It is doubtful whether there has been sufficient effort on the part of the state to operate its own prison labor in a first-class business manner sufficiently to determine whether the state can utilize the labor without loss. By reference to the St. Petersburg resolutions it will be found that the conclusions on this question are somewhat equivocal, yet favor most the anti-contract system. The individual members of the congress, however, spoke strongly against the contract system, and their views may usually be taken as the more correct exponent of the sentiment of the congress.

The following views were expressed:

Mr. Illing, superior privy councilor of the minister of the interior of the Kingdom of Prussia, presented the following views:

In discussing the question in order to decide to what system preference should be given, we should first ask, what is the object of work in prisons? We can not judge of the organization of work without knowing what we wish to obtain in requiring prisoners to labor. Criminalists of all countries agree upon this point, that it is necessary to unite forced labor with the punishment for certain crimes and misdemeanors. But, if labor becomes thus an integral part of the punishment, it also at the same time furnishes the most efficacious means for its execution. Without work it would be impossible to maintain order and discipline in prisons. Without labor the physical and mental health of the prisoners would suffer for the want of employment. Idleness is incompatible with the health of the mind and the body, and the convict has the right to work as he has the right to his support. Idleness is the beginning of all evil in the prison as it is in free life, and the habit of regular work marks the first step in the way of regeneration. John Howard, the reformer of the English prison system, inaugurated his great work by organizing labor in prisons, putting in practice his rule: "Make men diligent and they will be honest." The Abbe Lamennais has said, "When God wished that man should work he concealed a treasure in labor."

Viscount d'Haussonville said in his work on Prisons: "Labor in prisons should have a double end, to give to the punishment a moral and reformatory character, and to facilitate the return of the prisoner to respectable life by providing for him at the time of his discharge resources and means to earn a living. * * * The application of penal law should not become a fiscal measure. Therefore the fiscal consideration should yield when in the organization of prison work it would conflict with prison discipline and when it would be opposed to the end of punishment. * * * In abandoning prison labor to the contractors, with full power to organize it at their will, the administration relinquishes the most efficient means for exercising a salutary influence on the prisoners and puts them in the hands of persons who work them to get the highest gain possible, who have no interest in the reformation of the convicts except as it affects pecuniary results and who are indifferent to the moral end of punishment. The dangers of such a system are increased by the fact that the foremen in the employment of the contractors acquire, as experience proves, an influence in the prison, which unfortunately is abused to satisfy the bad tendencies of the prisoners and to favor their illicit relations. Where the contract system is introduced the officer in charge of the establishment for the State has only one mission, that of preventing the prisoners from committing any excess and to prevent the labor organized by the contractor from being disturbed. It is evident that with such a system there could be no question as to the moral influence exercised by the officers on the prisoners. The prison becomes a private workshop in which public employés

assist the contractor in the execution of industrial labors without being able to occupy the prisoners in conformity to their individual qualifications, to the character and gravity of their crime, as should be done if we do not wish to renounce all the regenerating influence of labor." The French Société Générale des Prisons, which by its efforts and labors has acquired an unquestionable position on all questions touching prison affairs, has very ably depicted the consequences of a general contract system. In response to the questions of the Congress of Rome of 1885 it responded as follows on this question: "We regret we have to testify that under the régime of the contract system the moral side of prison work is entirely sacrificed. The central prisons are not, to speak truly, prison establishments, but vast manufactories in which manufacturers seek to draw the greatest profit from the labor they purchase from the state. The prisoner, the involuntary organ of this handiwork, is only considered as a productive force. The director gives way to the contractor. It is the contractor who disposes of the time of the prisoners, who provides for their wants, and who regulates all the details of their life. Armed with his specifications, he can oppose every modification of interior regulations which he judges contrary to his interest. Should the administration attempt to give the prisoners, outside of the hours provided in the regulations, some conference, some instruction, some exercise, even, required by their health, the contractor protests and claims the time which is his due. In this system public authority continues to give way to speculation. It abdicates to mercantile hands the high mission of moral and social preservation with which it is invested, and which consists not only in detaining criminals but in defending them against corruption and relapse." * * *

The contract system is an abuse. We can not otherwise qualify a system under which public authority according to the correct expression of the Société Générale des Prisons abdicates its high mission to the hands of speculators, but the lease system (of certain Southern States) goes farther yet in treating criminals as slaves and as beasts of burden. It is difficult to comprehend how such a scandal can continue to exist in the country of our venerated Dr. Wines, in the country which was the first to proclaim the rights of man. A journal, the Century for January, 1884, page 584, in speaking of the lease system, truly says: "It is an insult to the intelligence and humanity of an enlightened community."

Mr. Illing proceeded at considerable length to give his reasons for and against the contract system, in the course of which he quotes Col. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, and Z. R. Brockway, esq., of New York, two of the most eminent penologists of this country, whose addresses and writings oppose the contract system. The language of Colonel Sanborn is:

In the great prisons the contract system is perhaps indispensable, but in prisons of less than 300 prisoners one can dispense with it, and Mr. Brockway administers without contract a prison of 400 convicts. To be at the head of the management of a prison and to direct its industries, it is necessary to have a man endowed with capacity for business, and it is for lack of this capacity that administrations rarely succeed. On one side the contract system often introduces in prisons a moral and financial corruption, impedes discipline, and demoralizes the prisoner. For this reason it should be abolished wherever it would be possible. But in prisons where there are 500 or more it is probable that the system can not be changed.

Mr. Illing says that the system he would recommend conforms mainly to that established in Belgium by the law of April 5, 1887, which is outlined as follows:

ART. 2. The prisoners shall be principally employed on work for the state.

ART. 3. The central administration will order each year the list of articles of which the manufacturing will be reserved to the prisons by the different ministerial departments and will distribute the orders between the several departments.

ART. 4. If the state work does not occupy all the time of the prisoners, the directors should endeavor to utilize the balance of the time for the benefit of free industry.

ART. 5. The directors should bring out the competition of contractors.

ART. 6. Prison labor should not be leased except to contractors or manufacturers.

The entire remarks of Mr. Illing are interesting, but only the above can be given, with his conclusions, which are as follows:

1. Work in prisons should be employed as much as possible to manufacture articles for the use of the prisons and for the state in general.

2. Work for the state affords the administration of prisons great latitude to organize and regulate the work as the object of punishment requires. But the system is only preferable when there is a sufficient number of intelligent employés who will not prejudice the interests of workmen and when it operates only with a limited number of prisoners.

3. When the number of prisoners in a prison exceeds 200, the contract system can not be dispensed with.

4. The general contract system is in contradiction to the exigencies and the theory of prison management. Public authority, in giving to contractors the right to organize, at their will, the labor in prisons, abandons the execution of the punishment and deprives itself of the most efficient means for exercising a salutary influence on the prisoners. It should then in every case reserve to itself the right to regulate the work in general and to determine what should be the occupation of each prisoner.

5. In order to avoid, as much as possible, the disadvantages of competition we would recommend, where the contract system prevails, to lease labor only at public auction, and if administration work is pursued, not to authorize the management of the prison either to manufacture on order articles made in the little industries of persons living near the prison, nor to have a place for sale at retail of the articles manufactured in the prison.

The argument and conclusions of Mr. Illing are to the effect that contract labor should prevail in prisons having over 200 inmates. But this seems founded on the theory that the director or warden could not manage a greater number with his other duties. Would not that depend on the capacity of the warden? One soldier has the capacity to be a captain only and can manage only a company, while another can as well guide the movements not only of regiments, but of armies. And then this may raise another and very important query, whether a prison conducting administration labor should not have a competent business manager, who, while working in harmony with the warden, should have exclusive charge of the business management, as do certain officers in the German universities.

Without producing the arguments, the conclusions of several members of the congress will be given on this subject. Mr. Schimanovsky, a member of the court of appeals of Odessa, concludes as follows:

1. The labor should conform to local conditions, and should consider the population of the prison.

2. In the first place common or ordinary work should be considered; that is to say, that work which requires no special knowledge and which can employ the greatest

number of prisoners. If it is necessary to have in the prison some industry, such as making matches, it must be operated in the interest of the prison.

3. The compensation for labor after deducting the cost of material should go entirely to the prisoner who has done the work.

4. The trades of the shoemaker, carpenter, blacksmith, and locksmith should answer for the needs of the prison.

5. The system of administration work should be admitted. The persons to whom the direction of the work is confided should receive a percentage of the net products.

6. Competition would be avoided when the prisoners exercise the same trade as free laborers if the object sought is only to satisfy the wants of the prison, and if the articles manufactured are sold only at the current prices of free labor.

7. The work of women should be confined to domestic limits. Well-organized garden or dairy work could be successfully carried on by female prisoners.

The reader should have in mind that, however learned or experienced in penology the gentlemen here cited may be, their opinions are only individual, and that the opinions of European writers differ on these questions as much as do those of Americans. And here is where the labors of the prison congresses are of special value, in enabling all to compare the various ideas on the important subjects considered and, in that way, to profit by the sayings and experiences of others. The following views come with a certain weight of authority from the Russian standpoint as they are sanctioned by the commission of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg, the reporter being Mr. Ponomarew, an attaché of the Russian Senate. The report concluded as follows:

Based on what precedes, the commission of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg makes the following declarations:

1. The choice between contract and administration labor should be determined first in favor of the system which would best secure labor for the prisoners.

2. This demand being equally satisfied by either system, preference should be given to administration labor, the latter facilitating most the accomplishment of the end sought by imprisonment.

3. Considerations of equity and policy favor the development in prisons of labor at the command of the State destined to provide for the wants of the administration.

Mr. Bela Atzel, director of the penitentiary of Nagy Enyed, Hungary, speaks as follows on this question:

Before beginning the discussion of this question, I consider it my duty to indicate the principles on which prison labor should be regulated:

1. Labor should accord with penal law and the prison system.

2. It should not be in contravention of the regulations, the security and the discipline of the establishment.

3. It should not be prejudicial to the health of the prisoners and, so far as possible, it should be proportioned to each individual.

4. Labor should have, as much as possible, an educational character, and a kind of work should be selected which would aid discharged convicts to support themselves.

5. The labor should be of a nature to secure certain profits.

6. Labor in prisons should be of a kind that would not come into injurious competition with free labor.

If we observe the principles set forth from a practical view, we find that each system of work, whichever it is, will meet with difficulties in one or the other direction. * * * In prison, the labor of the convicts can be employed after one of the following systems:

(1) The sytem of work for the state, when the establishment executes the work on its own account and under the direction of its officers.

(2) The system known as the piece-price plan, or accord system. This system holds a position between the state and contract systems, and consists in this: that the establishment produces, under the direction of its officers, industrial articles or work for manufacturers or merchants, who furnish the materials and often the tools. These patrons either pay for the labor of each prisoner or for each article delivered. But these patrons—and this is extremely important—have no right to enter the establishment or into the workshops, so that they could come in contact with the prisoners; that is, they could communicate only with the director. This system is not applied exclusively in any establishment, and is usually combined with the state system.

(3) The contract system, in which the labor of the prisoner is let to a contractor, who works him for his benefit.

The contract system has three forms. According to the first, the prisoners are delivered to a contractor, who takes charge of nearly all the execution of the punishment. He employs the officers and pays the expenses of their support, and he furnishes the buildings for detention. In return, the contractor can work the prisoners at his will. According to circumstances, the contractor receives from the state an indemnity per head, or he is to pay a certain sum to the state; or, finally, the state pays nothing to the contractor, or the contractor to the state.

This kind of contract labor prevails only in North America, where the contractor sublets the prisoners to undercontractors who employ them in the construction of railroads, in mines, or in other enterprises. The prisoners are transported where the subcontractor wants them. They are there lodged in miserable barracks, and are poorly fed, so that, to speak truly, one-tenth die by sickness and ill-treatment. It goes without saying that in this state of things discipline can not be maintained except by the whip and by arms. [This system is the chain-gang lease system in the Southern States.]

In a pecuniary point of view this kind of contract labor is the least expensive to the state, and the execution of the punishment costs the state nothing, or nearly so. However, as in the execution of the sentence and for the work of the prisoners there never should be employed any system against which objection can be made in view of moral or penal law, and as the system presented above, apart from its other faults, is absolutely immoral, it can not be considered as a system applicable to the prison establishment of a civilized state.

The second form of contract labor practiced is the employment of prisoners in a state prison, under the supervison of officers named by the state, who undertake to provide for all the wants of the establishment, and in the meantime hire out the labor of the convicts. But the conditions for supplies as well as for working the prisoners are stipulated in the contract. This system is in vogue in France and the United States.

The third kind of contract work consists in this, that the labor of convicts in state establishments is hired to one or several contractors, and it is stipulated in the contract what trade the contractor should follow and how the state should be paid, by the head or by the day. The contractor must furnish the materials and the tools and designate a foreman for the organization of the work and the direction of affairs. The establishment should furnish only the shops and the workmen. In the state system, to the director is reserved the right to designate the workmen and to replace them. * * * This form of contract labor is mainly applied in Prussia and in Hungary, in connection with state labor. It is also practiced in Saxony, Brunswick, Hamburg, and Austria.

Mr. Atzel then goes on to give his views at length of these systems and says farther:

The state system is employed in Bavaria, Baden, Italy, England, Sweden and Norway, Belgium, Switzerland, Holland, Würtemberg, Hungary, and Croatia. At the same time it should be remarked that in Holland, Würtemberg, and Hungary they employ at the side of the state system the contract system also.

In conclusion he says of the state system:

1. It can accommodate itself to all systems of detention, for it can be applied to the cellular systems as well as to prisons in common and progressive.

2. It will not be found in collision with the regulations for safety and discipline. The prison direction can form a plan of labor in conformity with the regulations. It can also exercise the supervision and control which the best conditions of safety and discipline require.

3. To the directors is given the means and appliances for vigorous bygienic measures, suppressing such work as is injurious to health, and introducing no industry that is prejudicial in a hygienic point of view.

4. The prison directors are allowed to choose such industries as will offer resources to prisoners at their discharge. They can institute others at discretion, and consequently employ prisoners in a manner that accords with their strength, health, and aptitude. Finally, the directors can introduce only those industries that are not in operation in the locality of the prison by small manufacturers.

This question was also discussed at length by Mr. Paul Guéorguiewski, professor of the University of St. Petersburg, Mr. F. Chickerio, director of the penitentiary of Lugano, Switzerland, Baron Francois de Renzis, deputy of the Italian Parliament, and Mr. Etienne de Balkay, director of the prison at Sopron, Hungary.

M. HERBETTE ON CONTRACT LABOR.

Among those who presented reports on the question of contract or state labor was M. Herbette, the distinguished chief of the French prison administration. He recognized that the question presented different aspects in different countries, which rendered the question a difficult one to answer. In the mean time he believed that certain conclusions could be reached. The necessity of labor for prisoners appeared to him one of these, the want of work some times being the cause of revolt in prison. But this labor must be regulated; it should not be useless nor unproductive, nor should it lower the prisoner by giving him an occupation which would degrade him. The work should accord with the interest of society in serving to reform the prisoner. In this respect, if government labor will best secure this end, it is necessary to employ it; but if it will not answer, some other means must be tried. The government system of labor is always difficult, because it requires numerous employés. The contract system offers advantages when it is well regulated. The condition necessary to success in the government system is to have profitable customers; but it is difficult for the state, which may deceive itself as to the profits of its operations. The system of government labor, well organized, offers the best facilities for the control of labor.

We should examine, then, the conditions for managing state labor, which requires the greatest precaution. On the other hand, it is necessary to remember that the labor of prisons should not be for the purpose of public profit. The best way is to apply the work as much as possible to the use of the state itself, and manage it so that all orders will be utilized by the state. The conclusions reached by M. Herbette are as follows:

1. Useful, and as far as possible productive, labor being necessary for prisoners in some penitentiary régime to which they are submitted, it is proper in each country to inquire, considering the individual case, how labor can be practically furnished to respond to the regulative and diverse necessities of penitentiary life.

2. Labor being the principal feature of prison life, should remain subordinate in its organization and in its operations to public authority, which alone can secure the execution of the penal laws. It should not allow the abandonment of prisoners to private interests.

3. In a general manner the system of state labor seems better to facilitate the control of every department of prison management, as well as the work to be accomplished. But, on account of the difficulties which the organization of public labor presents, it can be conceived how administrations can resort to contractors or private industries, provided that utilization of institution labor does not give the contractor control of the person and life of the prisoner.

4. In the organization of prison work, and especially in the system of state labor, it is desirable that the advantages of prison hand labor should be reserved to the state, and that the state should consequently, in as great a measure as possible, be both producer and consumer of the objects manufactured by prison labor.

As to the conclusions relative to the second question, M. Herbette formulates them as follows:

1. That hand labor should be utilized as far as possible, and without doing wrong to the necessities of prison labor, to the wants of the prisoners, and to the operations of the institution.

2. That the advantages which may result from this hand labor should be reserved as far as possible to the service of the state, and should not be for the benefit of private contractors.

3. That the naming of the effective force of each industry in any place, the choice, the variety, and the supplying of the industries, the determination of the salaries, and prices of work should combine so as to constitute neither protection, privilege, nor abusive power capable of depressing corresponding free industries.

4. That public authority should always preserve, in some mode of organizing work, whatever it be, the mode for guarding against all abusive combinations, without reducing the prisoners to idleness and without abandoning them to the control or power of contractors.

Third Section—Prevention.

MR. RANDALL ON PREVENTION.

There were only two American reports at the St. Petersburg Congress, one by Mr. Z. R. Brockway, the able and distinguished superintendent of the New York State Reformatory, which paper will be found in the prison section of this report, and another paper in the preventive

section, by Mr. C. D. Randall, of Michigan, on the third question of the third section. Incidentally his paper also answers in some respects the seventh question of the first section. Mr. Randall's paper is as follows:

I have presented in detail to the International Prison Congress of Stockholm and of Rome the system adopted by the State of Michigan for the protection and supervision of dependent children, a system which consists in the temporary maintenance in a public school, where they are educated, and then placed in respectable families during their minority. I have treated the same subject in the Bulletin de la Société Générale des Prisons. The different papers which I have published have drawn European attention to this school. Senator Roussel, of France, writes me: "Your interesting communications to ancient Europe, and especially those you have made to my country through the Société Générale des Prisons, have too vividly struck my attention to allow me to neglect the duty I have imposed on myself to present to the French Parliament an account of the admirable work for which the State of Michigan is indebted to you."

In this remarkable report, presented in 1872 by Senator Roussel to the French Senate, will be found an extended description of the State Public School of Michigan and a copy of the laws under which it operates. The Bulletin de la Société Générale des Prisons in the year 1878 published a discourse which M. Drouyn de Lhuys, who was minister of Louis Philippe, delivered before the Institute of France, approving highly the system of this institution, placing the State of Michigan in advance of Europe in the care and education of dependent children. This institution has been appreciated in a very favorable manner at home and abroad by most eminent economists, and it is doubtful whether any similar school has ever met with such general approval. The most complete account of its plan and operations will be found in a report presented by me to the Paris Exposition of 1889, which comprises three volumes, which have been presented to the library of the Société Générale des Prisons. On this report the institution was awarded a gold medal. From these different sources of information the reader will learn that in 1871 the State of Michigan, which then had existed only about 40 years, took a new departure in social science, assuming the right and duty to protect, assist, and educate the dependent children, receiving them temporarily in an educational establishment and then placing them as soon as possible in respectable families during minority, in accordance with written contracts guaranteeing to the children a good education and treatment as members of the family where placed. This school has no connection with the penal or reformatory system of the State. Poverty alone admits the children. The law of the State provides for a complete separation of the dependent from delinquent children. Formerly they were brought up together by public or private charity. The child is placed in a family, in which, according to the contract, he is to be treated as one of the family, and sent to the public school. He is not in the position of a domestic, and he has every opportunity to become in time a useful, independent, and respected citizen. During his minority he is the object of active supervision by county agents, one in each county and by a State agent from the school, whose mission is to secure the faithful performance of the contract. It is not a boarding-out system. There is no compensation for their support. This institution receives all the dependent children of the State between 2 and 12 years of age who are healthy in body and mind. At the same time, those who have lost a limb are not excluded. Such children have been taught telegraphy, and some are now receiving $100 per month. Up to the present time 2,900 children have been received, and when the prison congress meets the number will be probably 3,000. The number of these children who have had the beneficial influence of this school and the homes where placed is great, and many are already respectable and self-supporting. The advantages this system presents for the children of the poor is evident, and it is also evident that its influence has reduced the number of dependent children in the State. The result would be more certain if

the neighboring States should adopt this system, for there are no large rivers or high chains of mountains to separate the States and only a geographical line to indicate the boundary over which the dependent and delinquent classes may pass and repass. The inhabitants of our country speak the same language, they are part of the same people, under the same general government, and there is more or less a constant movement of the people. The dependents and criminals of one State can migrate to another, and the Eastern States send their dependent children west and place them in families, often without proper discrimination, without a written contract, and without any subsequent supervision. The result is that many of these children desert their new homes, and sooner or later are found in the county poorhouses, in reform schools, or in prisons. In 1887 the State of Michigan enacted a law, according to which the placing of children in families can not take place without a written contract, and then only in families which shall be approved in the same manner as homes are approved for the children of the State Public School. This law regulates the placing of all children, and while it does not forbid their emigration, it indirectly secures that result by requiring that they shall be placed in carefully selected homes and have supervision. The theory of the law is that each State should provide for its own dependents. Without doubt this new measure will greatly contribute to reduce the number of dependent children in Michigan. The law is an amendment to the Michigan statute "for the protection of children."

In the States of New York and California the dependent children are brought up in sectarian asylums at public expense, which tends to increase pauperism. In the State of Ohio are establishments called "district homes," and others called county "infirmaries," in which such children are received. In Indiana and in most of the other States these children are mainly cared for in the county poorhouses. One can get an idea of the results of these different systems by consulting the following figures drawn from the official report of 1887 :

State.	Estimated population.	Number of dependent children.	Rate to population.	Annual cost in 1887.
New York	5,500,000	20,295	1 to 263	$2,050,000
Ohio	3,500,000	3,573	1 to 1,000	312,354
California	1,000,000	3,600	1 to 250	231,215
Michigan	2,000,000	200	1 to 10,000	35,000

In 1889 the board of control of the State Public School of Michigan reduced the anticipated expenses for 1889 and 1890 and applied to the legislature for only $33,000 for annual current expenses.

The influence of this school in Michigan has resulted in the enactment of the law "for the protection of children," the law for "the treatment of dependent children in the University Hospital," and the law establishing a county agency for dependent and delinquent children. It has also influenced the establishment of similar institutions in the States of Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. It has modified ideas which have prevailed in social science and corrected those which existed relative to dependent children.

Inquiries are so often made regarding this school it is considered advisable to explain the system thus briefly to those who are interested in unfortunate children. This institution represents the best system for decreasing the number of dependent children and to prevent their illtreatment. But I can not in this report speak farther of this institution, and refer again to the sources of information already indicated.

SOME CAUSES LEADING TO ILLTREATMENT OF CHILDREN.

Why enact laws to protect children from illtreatment by their parents? Are not children sufficiently protected by the love of their parents—by natural affection? Yes, if the affections are developed in a normal manner. Unfortunately, powerful in-

fluences weaken and destroy the affections, and among these and the most pernicious is intemperance. By it, cruelty to children begins with the very origin of life, when the maladies of the parents are given as a fearful legacy to the children. This terrible heritage for innocent children entails also poverty, ignorance, vice, filth, misery, hunger, bad company, illtreatment, and crime. Intemperance causes pauperism and crime, and where it reigns purity is little known and the child is initiated into evil. Brought up under such conditions, it would be surprising if he escaped a life of misery and crime. Against such cruelty the child can not protect itself. The State alone can come to his aid and the first act should be to protect the child from the evil effects of intemperance. Harper's Weekly correctly said:

"The sale of alcoholic liquors is the mortal enemy of civilized society, the prolific author of crime and pauperism, and the destroyer of domestic happiness, and its severe regulation and even its suppression by local option is a question of the highest importance."

MICHIGAN LAWS RELATIVE TO ILLTREATED CHILDREN.

Before the year 1889 there was no law in Michigan by which children, illtreated by their parents, could be fully protected. The parent who had brutally abused his child could, for a bodily injury, be arrested and punished, but the child would remain in his possession. When the injury was a moral one, when the child was depraved by the parents, when bad education put it in peril and on the way to the poorhouse or to the prison, there was no provision of the legislature to secure protection. The parents would continue to keep the children with them. This is the condition which now prevails in most of the States. The child who is morally abandoned, who is brutally treated by intemperate parents, who is raised in resorts dangerous to health and morals, and in the society of the criminal and vicious, is on his way to a charitable institution, to the reform school, or to the prison. It is urgent, then, to enact efficient laws for the protection of children who are found in such conditions. It is questionable whether any country has yet attained perfection in legislation for this purpose. The French project, which was cited above, and on which Senator Roussel presented a report so complete, is without doubt the best known and the best formulated to secure efficient protection for dependent or illtreated children. This project has been passed by the senate, but not by the house of deputies, where it has already undergone some modifications to reduce expenses to the state.

The principle placed at the head of this act is remarkable and well worthy of drawing attention to the high position in which the enactment of this law would place the French Republic. This principle is formulated in the following language:

"Every minor, not emancipated, of either sex, materially or morally abandoned or illtreated, is under the protection of public authority."

We find in this project a clear and logical definition of the various kinds of illtreatment which would justify official protection and the enumeration of the methods provided to assure it. The delay in the enactment of this law is to be regretted. The experience acquired by the vigorous enforcement of this act would enlighten public opinion upon methods for efficiently protecting children morally abandoned or illtreated. Under these circumstances Michigan has had from other countries few precedents to guide in legislative reforms for dependent and illtreated children. In some States there are laws, primitive enough, which in a certain measure protect children seriously illtreated, and in some cases permit their removal from their parents.

The courts generally interpret the laws in favor of the child. Formerly the theory and principles of the English common law always granted the guardianship of the child to the father. This, in practice, has not been sensibly modified, so that the forfeiture of parental authority is rarely pronounced by the courts. The project of the French law contains provisions relative to forfeiture and to restore the parental power when it is demonstrated that restitution will be for the best interest of the

child. The Michigan law of 1889 has borrowed some of these provisions and others are inspired by the French project, but the law does not extend as far as the other. There are some features which should be supplied by further legislation, when experience under this act shall show what is wanting. For example, this law does not provide for the restoration of parental control. The parent of sufficient means should be required to contribute to the expense of the education of the child.

But, notwithstanding these defects, it is doubtful whether there exists at present a more efficient law for the protection of illtreated children than that which was adopted by the State of Michigan in 1889. It is a part of the general law "for the protection of children," and begins with section 11 as follows:

"SEC. 11. Every child under sixteen years of age who is illtreated within the the meaning of this act by his father, mother, or guardian, is hereby declared to be under the protection of public authority and may be removed from such parent or guardian, as herein provided."

This section is followed by one which defines the illtreatment which should secure protection by the law. This protection is as complete as that secured by the law of any country. The writer does not know of any law as radical and at the same time so conservative. It limits the application of the remedy to the most serious cases. If a case of illtreatment be well established under this law it is doubtful whether any court or jury would hesitate an instant to declare the parental rights forfeited.

"SEC. 12. An illtreated child is hereby declared to be:

"First. One whose father, mother, or guardian shall habitually violate or permit such child to violate the provisions of sections one, two, five, and six of this act.

"Second. One whose father, mother, or guardian habitually causes or permits the health of such child to be injured or his life to be endangered by exposure, want, or other injury to his person, or causes or permits him to engage in any occupation that will be likely to endanger his health or life or to deprave his morals.

"Third. One whose father, mother, or guardian is an habitual drunkard or a person of notorious and scandalous conduct, or a reputed thief or a prostitute or one who habitually permits him to frequent public places for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or to frequent the company of or consort with reputed thieves or prostitutes, with or without such father, mother, or guardian or by any other act, example, or by vicious training depraves the morals of such child."

In order to understand the full import of section 12 it is necessary to know the provisions of the first, second, fifth and sixth sections.

The first section forbids any one having custody of a child under 16 years of age to permit him to be employed as a rope-dancer, acrobat, beggar, or for an obscene, indecent, or immoral purpose, or to be exposed in any manner injurious to his health or dangerous to his life or morals.

The second section forbids the presence of such child in any place where intoxicating liquors are sold as a beverage, and in places of public amusement, such as dance houses, houses of prostitution, billiard saloons, and other places used for gambling purposes.

The fifth section forbids the employment of such child in the sale of obscene publications or of journals specially devoted to police reports.

The sixth section forbids the sale, in public places, in the presence of children of the publications mentioned in section 5.

After the definition of what constitutes an illtreated child come the provisions relative to the application of the law. As this law is not common, the provisions for its enforcement are given here in detail. Like the law relating to the State School at Coldwater, the jurisdiction of the disposition of illtreated children is in the probate court. The method of procedure is as follows:

"SEC. 13. Upon complaint made to the judge of probate of the proper county that any child has been illtreated in either manner stated in this act, he shall examine the complainant on oath and shall reduce the complaint to writing and cause the same

to be subscribed by the complainant, and if it shall appear that such offense has been committed the judge of probate shall issue a writ reciting the substance of the complaint and require the officer to whom it is directed to forthwith bring the child so alleged to have been illtreated and the parent or guardian charged with such illtreatment, before such judge of probate, to be dealt with according to law; and in the same writ he may require the officer to summon such witnesses as shall be named therein to appear and give evidence on trial.

"SEC. 14. That on the return of such writ with said child and the accused, the judge of probate shall proceed to hear and determine the cause. If it shall appear by the returns of the officer that the accused can not be found in the county, the hearing shall proceed without him. If the child shall be without counsel, it shall be the duty of the prosecuting attorney, on the request of the judge of probate, to appear in his behalf. If the accused or counsel for the child shall so request, the judge of probate shall order a jury to be summoned to find the facts in the case, and the judge of probate may in his discretion order a jury on his own motion. The jury so ordered shall be a jury of six persons and shall be summoned and empaneled in accordance with the law relating to juries in courts held by justices of the peace. If on the hearing the judge of probate shall find, or the verdict of the jury shall determine, that the allegations in the complaint are true, the judge of probate shall make and enter an order that the accused has forfeited his right to the custody of the child during minority and that the child be disposed of, in the discretion of the judge of probate, by one of the following methods:

"First. By the appointment of a respectable and suitable person of sufficient means as guardian of the custody and education of the child, who shall not be required to give bonds as such guardian, unless it shall appear that such child has personal or real property, who shall execute a written agreement in form approved by said judge of probate, and filed in said court, which shall provide for the treatment of the child as a member of the family, and for his proper support and education in the public schools. On complaint thereof made to the judge of probate that said guardian does not faithfully execute the terms of said contract, the said judge of probate shall cite said guardian to appear before him, and if it is then found that the allegations in the complaint are true the said judge of probate may cancel the contract and make a new order for the disposition of the child as herein provided;

"Second. By sending such child, if over two and under twelve years of age and sound in mind and body, to the State Public School at Coldwater, to be there received and to be subject to such disposition as the laws regulating that institution provide;

"Third. By delivering such child to the superintendents of the poor, if he is under two or over twelve years of age, or is not sound in mind and body, to be by them indentured to some suitable person, according to the provisions of sections eight and nine of this act, or to provide for him by the county as for other poor persons."

By the large discretionary power of the judge, the child can be placed first with a parent or friend. Whatever be the social condition of the child, the judge can, if he finds it best and convenient and if a favorable opportunity presents, place the child in social conditions analagous to those in which he was found. The parents may belong to the wealthy class and possess means which would permit them to contribute to place their child in a proper family and to insure him a good support and a good education. Where the child has no parents or friends, if he is of proper age and sound in mind and body, he may be sent to the State School. If not admissible to the school the child goes to the county as a public charge. * * *

It is not probable that there will be many cases under the new law. The condition of society in Michigan is certainly as good as in any other State of the Union or elsewhere, and cases of illtreatment will be rare. The law may at least have a deterrent influence. There will always be a natural hesitation to make a complaint against a neighbor, however grave his misconduct. But by means of this law the State extends to its citizens the means for efficiently protecting children in the graver

cases of illtreatment. No one should have occasion to say that there was no legal protection for illtreated children. It is a fact that in many counties this protection does not exist. The law is conservative, covering only the most serious cases. Its highest object is to protect children against those pernicious influences which, in all probability, would lead them to vice and crime. The vigorous execution of the law would have much to do in closing up the sources of poverty and crime.

When the provisions of this law are fully executed we will no longer see young children employed as acrobats or occupied in immoral or indecent pursuits. They will no longer be met in liquor saloons or in the streets buying or selling obscene literature, and these publications would disappear. Parents would no longer neglect the physical and moral condition of their children, and they would no longer be brought up in the society of habitual thieves, drunkards, prostitutes, and gamblers. The children would no longer be exposed to the worst temptations, become intemperate, have their health undermined, their character depraved, and their ruin consummated.

This law executed against all these evils would remove them. But no law can produce all the results desired. However well executed the law, there will yet be illtreated children. The law will be violated. All laws are, more or less. But such laws should be on our statute books. If they do not fully attain the desired end, they at least express the condition of our civilization and the sentiment of the public. By its legislation a people pronounces in favor of social order, morality, religion, and humanity. And this sentiment so publicly expressed has a powerful reflex influence on the individual and a constant and unquestionable influence on society. The State in enacting such laws acts only in the interest of the child who one day will be a citizen. It acts also in its own interest, for self-protection, desiring by such measures to reduce to a minimum its useless members and to increase to a maximum its useful and working citizens. The illtreatment, such as set forth in the law, would powerfully contribute to cause the child to be vicious and criminal. Then the State should protect the child from such influences in the interest of humanity and for the protection of the State. The statesman will always find that humanity and political economy are not in opposition, but that they are identical. Laws, customs, and habits which in their effect are inhuman, undermine and destroy society and the State. Whenever it can, the law should secure to children protection and education sufficient to make them respectable citizens. * * *

FORFEITURE OF PARENTAL RIGHTS.

When Blackstone published his celebrated treatise on the common law of England, the power of the father over the children, whether humanely exercised or not, was absolute. It declared then that the father had legal control of the child and that "the mother, as such, had no authority and was only entitled to consideration and respect." To the father only belonged this exclusive guardianship, even at the age when the infant received its nourishment from its mother. However virtuous the mother, or however vicious and corrupt was the father, even at that tender age the father could prevent the mother having access to it. This principle of the common law continued in force until 1839 when an act of Parliament repealed it. There will be found in Nicholas Nickleby, by Dickens, the story of the poor boy Smike who was placed by the courts in the control of even a pretended father. The important cases decided in the English courts will be found in 4 Dowl. P. C., 293; 6 Nev. and Man., 244; and 4 Adolphus and Ellis, 624. This principle was drawn from ancient precedents of other nations. In Persia, Greece, Gaul, and Egypt, and in ancient Rome, this absolute power of the father was sanctioned, even to the right to the life of the child. But as the humane ideas of modern civilization penetrated the spirit of legislative bodies and even into courts of justice, the principles of the ancient English common law relative to parental control disappeared.

The present English law authorizes the courts, in cases of habeas corpus, to withhold the child from both the complainant and defendant. If the child be 14 years of age, the court allows it to choose its own guardian and will approve the selection. If the child is not yet 14, the court will order that it be placed under proper guardianship. For precedents, see the cases of R. C. Deleval, 3 Burr., 1434; *Ex parte* Hopkins, 3 P. W., 151 n. "A"; R. C. Johnson, 1 Str., 579, and other cases there cited.

In the United States of America the courts have always been less than in England under the influence of ancient precedents, and the doctrine has always been less severe and more liberal towards children. The decisions are that in all cases of habeas corpus, and in all proceedings in chancery in which the custody of a minor is in question, it shall be the duty of the court to examine carefully all the facts and circumstances in the case, and then in its discretion order that the child shall be confided to some one best qualified for the guardianship. Above all, under this rule the court must consider the interest and welfare of the child and shall not permit technicalities of procedure or of parental rights to affect the decision. When the court finds that neither the complainant nor the defendant is a proper person to have the custody of the child, it must confide the guardianship to some other person to be charged with its support and education during minority. Decisions in support of this rule are numerous in the courts of the United States. The most interesting one is that of Donohue and others, New York, September term, 1876, in which the decision was delivered by Judge Westbrook, who expressed the views of the court as follows:

"The right of the State to care for its children has always, and with great propriety, been exercised under its laws, and whenever the welfare of the child has been demanded its courts have frequently interfered for the protection of children of tender years. It has again and again taken them from one parent and given them to the other, or has refused so to do; the good and welfare of the child being the object always in view."

The following opinion of the great American law writer, Kent is good authority:

"But the courts of justice may, in their sound discretion and when the morals or safety of the children greatly require it, withdraw the infants from the custody of the father and mother and place the care and custody of them elsewhere."

The case of Corrie *vs.* Corrie, 47 Michigan, 509, is very instructive and fully sustains the American rule. Judge Graves, in presenting the opinion of the court, says:

"In contests of this kind the opinion is now nearly universal that neither of the parties have any rights that can be allowed to seriously militate against the welfare of the child. The paramount consideration is, what is really demanded by its best interest? It is doing no violence to what is taught by judicial experience to assume that the disputing parties will be more alive to the satisfaction of their own feelings and interests than to the true end of the inquisition; while the innocent subject of the contention is utterly unable to speak or act for itself, and is in danger of being lost sight of in the strife for its possession. No other occasion can call more loudly for judicial vigilance in reaching for the exact truth, and in putting aside with an unsparing hand the mere technicalities of procedure."

A recent case was decided in the nineteenth circuit court of Michigan. The board of control of the State school at Coldwater had placed by indenture a child in a family. The contract had been canceled by the board on the ground that the family was not a proper one to retain the child. The family refused to surrender it and contested the proceedings by habeas corpus instituted by the board for the recovery of the child. Judge Judkins, in making an order for the surrender of the child and returning it to the institution, expressed himself as follows:

"In cases like this, the court will make a full inquiry into all the facts and circumstances and will then decide to which of the parties the child should be confided, and if it appears that neither should have it for the reason that neither is capable of taking care of it, the court will place it with neither and will confide it to some other person who is suitable to bring it up. The court will take into consideration the

interests of the child and will place it where it will be better cared for than with its father or mother. I have already had occasion to decide such cases. I remember a case of habeas corpus, about a year ago, where this question came up. The father demanded possession of the child from the mother. The father accused the mother of drunkenness, but the investigation showed that the father was a drunkard. In this case, I awarded the custody to neither, but after having carefully examined into all the circumstances, I rendered a decision according to the welfare of the child, rather than to satisfy the spite and caprice of the parents."

At the time when the English common law and the American practice were well established, and after the decision in the case of Corrie *vs.* Corrie by the supreme court of Michigan, a circuit court judge in that State rendered a decision in a habeas corpus case, in which the mother sought the recovery of her children who had been sent to the State school while she was an inmate of the Detroit House of Correction. He rendered a decision in favor of the complainant, and in deciding affirmed the old English rule saying the parents always had the right to the custody of the child whatever might be the law of the State. This remarkable decision was confirmed by the supreme court, not on the ground raised by the circuit judge, but for technical reasons, in effect setting aside in material respects their own decision in the case of Corrie *vs.* Corrie. The supreme court apparently overruled the decision in that case, in which Judge Graves said:

"No other occasion can call more loudly for judicial vigilance in reaching for the exact truth, and in putting aside with an unsparing hand mere technicalities of procedure."

To prevent the recurrence of similar decisions in the circuit courts, to assure uniformity in the disposition of such cases, and to render possible the proper placing of children in such circumstances, the Michigan legislature in 1889 amended the law for the "protection of children," and in so doing reaffirmed the English and American rule.

The introduction of this rule into statute law is new. The statute does not modify the rule, but is intended to secure uniformity in practice. The law imposes on the judge the duty to inquire whether the family is a proper one for the education of the child in cases of habeas corpus coming within his jurisdiction. The practice not having been uniform, the courts have hesitated to assume the right to declare parental rights forfeited. In the court the parents can present their claims, while the child is mute. The law requires that the child shall be heard, and that the law shall be interpreted in its interests. The new provisions introduced in the Michigan statutes are as follows:

"SEC. 15. In all suits or proceedings in chancery, and in all habeas corpus proceedings where the custody of any child under sixteen years of age is in controversy, if the court or judge shall be satisfied from the evidence that either party to such proceedings would illtreat such child, within the meaning of this act if placed in his custody, or otherwise would be unsuitable to have such custody, the said judge or court may order that the other party to such proceedings shall have the custody of such child during minority, if it shall appear to the satisfaction of such judge or court that such other party would be a suitable one to have such custody and would not illtreat such child within the meaning of this act. And if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the judge or court that neither party to such proceedings is a suitable one to have such custody, the judge or court shall order that the parties to such proceedings have forfeited any rights that they may have had to the custody of said child during minority, and the custody of such child during minority shall, in the discretion of such judge or court, be disposed of by such judge or court by either of the methods provided in section fourteen of this act. The contract when made and approved by said judge or court shall be filed in the probate court, and the judge of probate of the probate court where the contract is filed shall have the same authority to cancel such contract and dispose of the child again as provided in said section

fourteen as in other cases: *Provided*, That in all cases arising under the provisions of this act appeal shall be allowed as in other cases triable before said court."

The new Michigan law, combined with the American practice, requires of the parents the exercise of their authority for the welfare of the child, and at the same time offers full protection against illtreatment. While the State of Michigan was the first to establish an institution for dependent children, that State is also the first one which has clearly defined what constitutes illtreatment, and provided for those illtreated ample protection.*

The writer of this report will be amply compensated if this sketch of the English and American laws for the protection of illtreated children will call the attention of the members of the congress to the urgent necessity of similar measures for the protection of children who are found in the unfortunate conditions above named. In consecrating their labors to preventive methods, as well as to the treatment of adult criminals, members of the congress can be assured of a certain and efficient success, as well as in considering repressive measures or prison discipline.

I will conclude this work by repeating what I said in the Congress of Rome:

"The Congress of St. Petersburg, will it not give the highest prominence to the work of prevention? Will it not place prevention where it belongs, at the head of all questions relative to the reform and punishment of criminals?"

"*Save the child and it will not be necessary to correct or punish the man.*"

Senator Roussel, in his remarkable report to the French Senate, says: "It is only in organizing a system of preventive education that we can noticeably influence the moral development of our young population and arrest this rising wave of offenses and crimes which so alarm public opinion."

MR. FUCHS AND OTHERS ON PREVENTION.

Mr. Ad. Fuchs, councilor of finances and president of the central committee of the Union of Societies of Patronage at Karlsruhe, presented a report on the third question of the third section.

Though the question did not contemplate the placing of delinquent children in families, the learned author considered the propriety of placing those children in families as well as abandoned or dependent children. In his treatment of the question he considers three classes of children, as follows:

1. Those children who otherwise have good natural dispositions, but who in consequence of a neglected or bad education, or who have before them the example of unnatural parents, find themselves morally abandoned.

2. Those children who, having innate faults of character, such as insolence, willfulness, violence, wickedness, envy, cruelty, malignant hatred, vengeance, and other like hereditary tendencies strongly developed, under the influence of an education morally bad, do not combat but develop further their evil tendencies.

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* The "Child and State," a very useful California paper, in speaking of the meeting of the Sixteenth National Conference of Corrections and Charities held in San Francisco in 1889, said: "Mr. Randall did well to tell the conference in this city what his own State was doing to protect its illtreated children. That wonderfully inspiring series of gatherings would have justified their existence, if they had done no more than give us the Michigan definition of what illtreatment means."

3. The class that includes the children who have already entered on the road to crime. They are yet too young to be considered as having acted with discernment, or they have attained the legal age of discernment and are punished for the first time, or are in the condition of relapse, and after having undergone the punishment to which they have been condemned should be subject to the régime of compulsory education.

Neither of these divisions includes the dependent child who has not been delinquent. In this respect the writer follows the precedent of writers and legislatures for many years, who have uniformly waited until the dependent child became criminal, and then provided for him in reformatories or in prisons. But there can be no doubt that delinquent children should as far as possible have the benefits of family life, and all discussions favoring that course should have favorable consideration. The conclusions of the writer are as follows:

1. The system of placing in families presents unquestionable advantages for securing the education, the work, and the future of the children or young persons morally abandoned and placed for various reasons under the guardianship or supervision of public authority, but on condition that the placing in families occurs in the first period of the moral abandonment, and that the selection of the family or master of apprenticeship be made with the greatest care. The special conditions which each case presents should demand attention, and compensation corresponding to the service required should be awarded.

2. In all cases where it appears necessary to apply educational methods to secure moral reform, that is to say, when the moral abandonment is inveterate, when the character of the child renders education difficult, or, finally, when the evident symptoms of perversity manifest themselves, commitment to an establishment of correctional education should be substituted for a family. However, this latter educational system should be for the essential purpose of improving with the utmost promptness the child's character, to the end that he may soon have the benefit of family education.

Mr. Soma Cornelius Krajsik, professor at Zólyon, Hungary, presented a report on the third question of the third section.

He, more than any other European writer, recognizes a class of children in society who are dependent only and who are not yet delinquent, though in danger of becoming so.

At the close of his paper the writer submits the following resolutions:

1. The congress declares that in a moral and practical view the system of placing in families children who are untainted morally, and who are sound in mind and body, is an advantageous one, and that young girls should be the first to receive the benefits of a home in a respectable family.

2. As we can not dispense with establishments even under the régime of family discipline, and as both systems have their advantages and their inconveniences and as the latter can be neutralized by a combination of the two methods, and, finally, as guilty and delinquent children in houses of correction have frequently given evidence of reformation, thus showing the family system to be desirable for them, the congress decides that, in order to profit by the advantages of both systems, it would be wise to combine them in the following manner:

(*a*) The child placed under public guardianship should be first sent to a temporary home for a period of time greater or less in duration according to its needs. An inquiry made during this time into its previous life, its tendencies, its moral and mental condition, will enable those in charge to ascertain which of the two systems should be applied in each case.

(*b*) The final mental and moral development of the child or the taste which it manifests for such or such a career will be the basis on which to decide whether the child placed in a family should be transferred to an institution or whether the care of the child already placed in an institution should be confided to a family.

(*c*) The foster parents and teachers should be chosen with great prudence, taking into account both the individuality of the child and the material condition and irreproachable life of the family where the child is to be placed, all of which should offer a sufficient guaranty for the physical, moral, and intellectual development of the child.

(*d*) During the time the child remains in the family its support, education, and development should be the object of serious supervision.

From the American standpoint, and especially from the Michigan, no European writer has more clearly stated the correct doctrine which should prevail regarding dependent children than has the above writer. He must have caught some inspiration from the Michigan system, with which he appears familiar, citing Mr. Randall's report on page 25 of his admirable paper.

There were twelve or fifteen reports from various countries in responding to the third question of the third section. It would be impossible to review them all here. But one more will be cited to present the differences in conditions which exist in the several countries, showing that what is entirely feasible in one may be done only with difficulty in another. The principal reason of American success in placing children in families, and especially among farmers, grows out of the fact that the average material condition of the American family and its education is greatly in advance of what it is in most of the European nations. In many countries of Europe there are fewer families among the common people, farmers or mechanics, who possess sufficient means, and who are able to take these children and provide for their support and education during minority. Under the Michigan system most of the children are placed with farmers' families, where they are treated as other children, as "members of the family," as the indenture requires. In such families they have excellent opportunities. The average American family is an educated one. The public schools, the country church (sometimes held in the schoolhouse), the weekly paper, and sometimes the daily, the monthly magazine, the local government of school district and township, in which all are alike interested and in which all are equal, are vital living forces, which enter into, influence, and develop the American citizen. Out of these families, from off the farms, from among the farmer boys and girls, come the best and ablest men and women of the land. This is why children in America are placed in families and especially on the farms.

To present this question from the Russian standpoint a translation will be given of the report of Mr. Tutchéw, director of the agricultural colony of St. Petersburg, which paper was presented by the Commission of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg, which society was represented by so many able papers and workers in the congress. The writer discourses on the third question of the third section, and says:

There are two methods by which children under public guardianship are brought up. By one of these methods the children are placed in special institutions established for this kind of education, and by the other they are placed in respectable families charged with their education. The latter system has been in operation in Switzerland since the eighteenth century as well as in certain provinces of Germany, and probably preceded the foundation of certain special establishments devoted to the education of children placed under the guardianship of the public. In France, in the year 1832, Minister d'Argout ordered the placing of young persons, acquitted under article 66 of the penal code, with respectable farmers or mechanics. They could not be placed in houses of correction unless unforeseen circumstances prevented the execution of this order. In Prussia, according to the law of March 13, 1878, the placing of children in private families is considered the best method of compulsory education. In the International Prison Congress held the same year in Stockholm, it was decided that the best system for bringing up abandoned or delinquent children was to place them in respectable private families; their admission into special public or private institutions should only be allowed in case of the lack of families where they could be placed. Of this decision Dr. Föhring made this observation:

"I have a firm conviction that this manner of understanding the question has only an academic value, I will say an ideal value; but in reality this subject should be considered from another point of view."

The opinion of Dr. Föhring is in reference to the children who require a correctional education. The placing of such children in private families, employed as a means of compulsory education is yet a question which requires solution.

Notice what can be said in favor of placing in families:

1. The adoption of children into private families places them under conditions more suitable to domestic life than the régime employed in establishments in common and necessarily facilitates at the same time their finished education and their entrance to social life.

2. The education of children received in families offers an excellent means to conform to the individual character of each child, and in public establishments this is of necessity more difficult.

3. The training received in a family raises the hope that afterwards the child will not be abandoned, and that its material welfare will be provided for (exceptions to this last case are very rare), while public institutions can not furnish such expectations.

On the contrary, the following objections can be made to the system just named:

1. A private family will always be as strangers to the child in their care and can never take the place of its own family. [Michigan experience decidedly contradicts every word of this, in the case of dependent, not delinquent, children.]

2. A natural prudence will render the father of the family disturbed by the influence which a delinquent child may exercise over his own children. The admission of a strange child into a respectable family will consequently afford an exceptional case in compulsory education.

3. A family capable of satisfying all the exigencies that attend the bringing up, and above all, the compulsory education of a child, is very difficult to find. The good intentions which the family exhibit, as well as the general esteem which they enjoy, do not offer sufficient guaranties. The authorities or the administrations which place

children in families are necessarily required to give attention and especial care to the selection of suitable families for the purpose, and this can only be done in rare cases.

4. A supervision or a control charged with watching over the execution of the contract with the family will be, in regard to the child, indispensable. A supervision of this kind, which has been proposed by the priest, Mr. Brehm, of Neukirchen, presents too great difficulties in its application.

The placing of children in private families does not always furnish the work which conforms to the disposition or the aptness of the child. On the other hand, it is feared that the family charged with its education will not cultivate the skill of the child.

The ideas we present permit us to insist that the compulsory education given in public institutions is preferable to that the children can receive in private families, especially so, if these children are affected by any vice, or have not reached their majority, and find themselves for this reason placed under public guardianship. Establishments of this kind answer better all necessary conditions to give the children a serious training, to cultivate a taste for work, and to assure their future.

At the same time there are cases where the training of children in public institutions should be transferred to private families. We refer to foundling asylums. The number of foundlings admitted to the foundling asylums in St. Petersburg reaches 9,000 annually. At Moscow, in 1887, there were 16,751 received. It is nearly impossible to create an establishment large enough to care for and raise so great a number of children, especially if we remember that the number of foundlings increases annually. It is for this reason that asylums necessarily send the children to the villages when their health will permit. In 1887 the foundling asylum of Moscow had placed in the villages 29 per cent. of the infants from 2 to 3 weeks old, and 2 per cent. of those over 3 months old.

The villages to which the foundling asylums send infants are situated in the environs of that city and have a space of 47,000 square *versts*, divided into 23 districts.

The number of infants placed in these districts reaches 31,013; of which 10,235 have not reached 4 years. The number above 9 years was 16,487. It would be more difficult to establish and maintain special institutions to raise these 10,000 infants under 4 years than to place them in private families. In this way the problem of education in a private family is very much simplified: first, because the education of infants begins, so to speak, in the cradle; secondly, because they are not reclaimed from correctional education, and finally, by reason of the strong attachment established between the child and the family, its life becomes identified with its guardians, and thus the stranger child is often adopted. In 1887, 156 children from the foundling asylums of Moscow were adopted in this way.

The managers of the foundling asylums are required to watch over the lives of the children, to care for their health, and to give them at 9 years of age primary instruction in the schools. When the school studies terminate the best scholars are placed in different institutions where they continue their studies. January 1, 1888, the foundling asylum of Moscow had 141 children of this class. The greatest number of children who finish their studies at the school remain until their majority (21 years) in the families where they are raised. Very few among them learn any trade.

In 1881 the foundling asylum of Moscow had 1,141 scholars apprenticed, that is a little less than 4 per cent. of the whole number. By this it will be seen that apprenticeship to trade in families is due exclusively to accidental circumstances.

While in special institutions professional study is a part of the imposed education, apprenticeship to a trade is obligatory.

The administration of foundling asylums is charged, moreover, with the care of diseased children during their life. In 1887, for their support in the asylum of Moscow and environs 17,451 rubles and 15 copecks were expended. This was for 736 children. From statistics thus gained, we learn that methods adapted to infants placed in private families can not be used for children tainted with vice and stand-

ing in need of a reformatory course of training. This régime is good only for young orphans who have no home.

Placing children in families for the purpose of perfecting them in trades or training them in field labor is expedient in the following cases only: When the child's reformation is established his entrance into a family life will be a conditional liberation or a provisional measure that can at the time of his discharge from the establishment facilitate his admission into social life.

Finally, when infirm, idiotic, and insane children are discharged from public asylums, they can receive better care if placed in private families.

It is difficult generally to substitute an education for minors in private families that would equal that of correctional education introduced in public institutions.

In conclusion, the commission of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg is of the opinion that—

1. The substitution of the system of imposed education in public institutions by an educational régime in private families is neither possible nor desirable.

2. However, the latter régime can serve for the completion of the education of the children when they go out from a public institution, provided always that the family has a filial relation with the institution, and that in continuing their relations with the managers the children will be under the supervision of the institution.

3. These relations once established, the admission into families would be useful for the youngest children or those who have not reached the age of detention in public establishments, and will be considered as an act of benevolence and protection.

It will be seen that the idea of a radical separation of dependent from delinquent children, either in families or in institutions, does not appear in this report and scarcely in that of any European writer. This radical separation is the very basis of the Michigan system, which especially deals with placing dependent children in families, and does not taint the children with crime by associating them with delinquents. At the same time it provides for placing delinquent children in families by the reform schools, which is somewhat unsuccessful, owing to the character of the children.

Mr. V. Lütken, chaplain of the penitentiary of Vridslöselille and president of the patronage society of that prison, and of Seeland, Denmark, reported on the third question of the third section. He names sixty-one institutions for children in Denmark founded by citizens, cities, etc., for dependent and delinquent children, supported by the public or by private charity, each different in its objects and work. He gave an interesting account of the rise and progress of Danish institutions for children. In one place he quotes Mr. L. Schroeder, a member of the Diet, who submitted the following theses:

1. In most cases it would be proper to educate abandoned children separately from children in asylums or depots of vagrants.

2. Small homes for children are preferable to large.

3. It is especially desirable that the management of children's homes should be confided to women living alone and who have the gift of raising children.

In one place the writer lays down two rules which are worthy of consideration:

1. A child who has begun to deviate from the right should not be transferred to another family, but to a home for children, or to an educational establishment.

2. Homes and educational institutions should not be too much separated from the people.

The following are the general conclusions of this writer:

1. It is necessary to reflect seriously upon the needs of childhood so as to treat those who really are children as such, and above all not to lose sight of the fact that the young in the age of transition are children rather than adults.

2. The punishment of a child should only be as a part of its education. Therefore, every punishment that has not an educational purpose and is not conducive to it, whether dictated by the family, by the school, or by the State, is to be condemned.

3. The punishment or the treatment of children ought to be regulated not by legal principles, which would put the children on a real "bed of Procrustes," but upon the pedagogic principle, so that in the first place it will not be asked what is legally just for children of this age, but what is proper and judicious for the child in question from an educational point of view.

4. The punishment or treatment should be adapted not so much to the special case of violation of rule as to the moral disposition of the child. On the one hand, it would not be just that for vagabondage at one time or for breaking windows at another the child should be confined for several years in a reform school. On the other hand, for the same reason, the law should give place to a less severe construction and even in the gravest cases be content with admonition, taking into account the special circumstances of the case and particularly the surroundings of the child. Concerning the placement of the child, in view of education or correction, provision should be made in instances where the well-being of the child would be imperiled by the persistent indifference of the parents or guardians, or by evil surroundings, as well as in cases where the character and the conduct of the child would be of such a nature that the school or family could not benefit him.

5. The authority which determines the disposition of children should be able to select most convenient means in respect to teaching and to guaranty its freedom from interruption and derangement as long as the education is incomplete. It is absolutely necessary that he who disposes of the child should know him. Consequently this work should not be done by distant authority, but by the nearest possible local authority or the nearest court. An understanding should always be had with the family when it is a respectable one, and, above all, with the school, so that it could in one way or another give its advice if the child is yet under compulsory education. Besides this, the family or the school should have the right to appeal from the sentence rendered. When the child is received into an educational or correctional institution the parental authority should be transferred to the establishment during minority.

The closing sentences of this writer are well worth reproducing here. He says:

The principal point always is when a boy or girl has committed a misdemeanor or an offense, not only to search for the sections of the law which have been violated, but to inquire concerning the nature of the child and in what surroundings he has lived. Will an admonition answer the purpose? If not, should the correction be more severe than corporal punishment? Would chastisement assist family education and the school? Should the child in this case be reinstated? Should this child be taken from the family and placed in an educational institution? Is the moral condition of the child so alarming as to make it necessary to send him to a reform school, and which of our institutions is the best for his age, his physical and mental development, and his

moral condition? Finally, are we dealing with a child or a young criminal whom it is necessary to commit to a penitentiary?

In each particular case the solution of these questions should be indicative of the treatment to apply, and should not be regulated by a general table of ages and crimes, but according to the nature and condition of each child, after consultation with the school and the family, for criminal children more than others have need of personal attention and educational treatment.

The disposal of dependent children is in Russia a most serious question. Conditions do not appear to encourage the placing of children in families, and the aim so far in institutions is only to prepare the child for service or for mechanical trades. There is little opportunity for the child to rise in social position if placed on a farm in Russia. If he is taught a trade, there is more probability of advancement. Hence, as shown by reports, Russian writers do not appear to have in their own minds reached a satisfactory conclusion. For instance, an extract will be given here from the report of Mr. Douchowsky, a Moscow professor. He pictures an ideal institution; he not only makes his institution, but he creates special families as adjuncts. He says:

Is it possible, then, to remove by a regular organization all the inconveniencies of which I speak, and can we find an efficient method, capable of neutralizing the evil suffered by the child as well as by the teacher and the family. It is difficult to say, but it seems to me possible to diminish the evil by organizing the work according to a thorough system. Thus we could, in my opinion, establish for this purpose a few organized colonies of a normal kind, the members of which should devote themselves exclusively to the education of the children placed with them. These colonies should be established near asylums or in villages where conditions would be favorable for placing children.

The asylum and colony would thus form together an indivisible and complete system. The child or youth placed under the supervision and guardianship of the authorities would first enter the asylum. In this way his qualities and character could be studied. Then the children and youth who are healthy physically and morally should be confided to a family of the colony, a family well known to the administration of the asylum. The child placed would continue its relation with the asylum, where there would be a school and a common church. The director of the asylum would exercise a great influence on the colony, and have supervision of all the children. This supervision should be actual and permanent. I do not know in Russia an example of the organization I propose, but I believe it would be well to establish one. In this way we could contribute to the solution of a difficult question: How to render healthy, physically and morally, vicious and abandoned children and make them useful citizens of the state.

The writer outlines a system which may appear chimerical, but one which has some interesting features worthy of careful consideration. In it the family system is prominent, but it is artificial, not the natural one which in after life the child may experience.

Dr. Romeo Taverni, professor of the art of teaching in the University of Catana, Italy, presented a report on the third question of the third section. After a lengthy discussion of the subject the following conclusions were reached:

1. The state should have, besides orphan asylums and other charitable institutions of like character for children and youth placed by law under

its guardianship, three distinct kinds of reformatories—one for those committed by request of parents, one for the accused awaiting trial, and the third for those convicted of crime by law. Such institutions would be useful as a means of technical instruction not only in cities but in rural districts also.

2. The guardianship or supervision which public authority exercises in many ways over those under age could be bettered in a great degree by placing a certain number of them in private families for education. This is specially recommended for young girls.

3. The practice on the part of the state of confiding certain minors to private families for their education may be harmonized with that of placing them in reformatories on the congregate plan.

4. It is proper that the directors and instructors of the state reformatories should be laymen.

5. With the approval of competent judicial authority, the accused and the convicted under 18 years of age, upon whom sentence has not been executed, should be committed by the state to responsible families for education during the term of their preventive detention. Local societies, either of patronage of prisoners or of discharged convicts, should be urged by the public authority to provide these families and to supervise them.

6. It is best for the state to decrease its expense by favoring the establishment of private reformatory institutions.

The Evil Influences of Parents.

SENATOR ROUSSEL, OF FRANCE.

The seventh question of the first section would seem appropriate in the third section. It would also appear proper to call attention here to some of the answers to that question. It deals largely with illtreated children and their proper protection and education as a very efficient agency of prevention. Among the most prominent writers on the seventh question of the first section, in regard to the evil influence of parents and how to counteract it, is the distinguished Senator Roussel, of France, the author of the remarkable report to the French Senate on dependent and delinquent children.

The author begins by saying:

It is not rare when a minor is convicted by the courts to hear the regret expressed that the really guilty parties, the parents, have escaped punishment. This reflection, brought out by the special facts, has almost general comprehension.

It can be said that it characterizes the family associations from which emanate nearly all the young delinquents and young criminals, and it indicates correctly the principal source of the criminality of minors, the alarming progress of which has been shown in countries most advanced in civilization. We do not have to demonstrate the evil influence of parental example upon the development already so precocious of vicious instincts and criminal tendencies. According to the terms of the question submitted to us, we are to seek for the means of protecting until their majority, young convicts in a state of conditional liberation, and also those who have completed the term of their imprisonment.

The pernicious influence of parents relative to minors is manifested in two ways and at two periods in the life of the child. First, in extreme youth when he is only a burden, his parents neglect him. He is left without proper care, often without food, and subjected to all hazards of the streets; he is forced to be a vagabond and a beggar, and this situation continues until a violation of law places the little unfortunate in the hands of justice. Later everything is changed. When by maturity of age and the good effects of penitentiary education the child instead of being a burden can be a source of profit, we see these same parents, who had abandoned him in his infancy and apparently had forgotten him altogether, go to him and win him back to them by their entreaties, and finally on his discharge regain him by virtue of parental authority. This indiscretion of evil parents operates in the same way in the case of children brought up by charity, and it is in this way that the fruits of correctional or charitable education are corrupted, and that a great many minors, who would have become useful members of society, are definitely lost to it. It is to the infallible remedy of this evil in certain local conditions that the seventh question of the first section has been submitted to the congress.

In this connection the picture above drawn by Senator Roussel brings to mind a thrilling and touching incident related by Viscount D'Haussonville at the beginning of his able work, "L'Enfance á Paris." He says:

Some years ago a band of criminals were brought before the jury of the Seine charged with a terrible crime, the assassination of an aged widow, with details of ferocity which the pen refuses to describe. The president of the court having asked the principal, Maillot called "the Yellow," how he had been brought to commit such a crime, he replied:

"What do you wish I should tell you, Mr. President? Since the age of seven years I have been found only on the streets of Paris. I have never met anyone who was interested in me. When a child I was abandoned to every vicissitude—and I am lost. I have always been unfortunate. My life has been passed in prisons and jails. This is all. It is my fate. I have thus reached—you know where. I will not say I have committed this crime under circumstances independent of my will, but finally—[here the voice of Maillot trembled]—I never had a person to advise me. I had in view only robbery. I committed robbery, but I ended with murder."

The two pictures, one drawn by Senator Roussel and the other some years ago by Viscount D'Haussonville, are typical of neglected childhood in the great cities and demonstrate how, by such neglect, society creates within itself a criminal population that some day will fearfully prey upon it. The proper care and education of dependent children and the timely protection of the illtreated might have prevented what must now be suffered. It must be remembered that in all these cases of crime society suffers far more than the one individual, the offender, who is removed from its midst by the execution of the law.

Senator Roussel reviews at length the treatment of the seventh question in its various forms at the Congresses of London, Stockholm, and Rome, giving extracts from the discussions and the resolutions adopted, with comments thereon. He also reviews the provisions of the French law and the progress made lately on the project reported by him in the senate, in his great report referred to above. This project of law, as it passed the senate, was the most perfect in its general plan and details of any that ever came before a legislative body. The house of

deputies has very much modified the original project and has considably lessened its scope. Certain portions of the senatorial project became law July 23, 1889, having for their object the protection of illtreated, dependent, and morally abandoned children.

But the act of 1889, in the opinion of Senator Roussel, is yet incomplete and should be materially amended, as he says in the following extract from his report:

In conclusion, it appears from the preceding statement that to secure in French legislation the protection of young prisoners on conditional liberation, and of young convicts after the expiration of their sentence, it is necessary:

1. To modify article 66 of the penal code by extending until the twenty-first year, that is to say until majority, or in the case of a boy, until the time when he will be called into military service, the power to fix the duration of correctional imprisonment.

2. To add to the law of August 5, 1850, the provision of which the text has been given above and which permits, first, to withdraw from the parents during the time of conditional liberty the exercise of parental rights, and secondly, to deprive the parents of the young convict of the guardianship of his person until his majority or his discharge, if they have been convicted of certain offenses or have voluntarily abandoned their child, or have habitually neglected to watch over him, or if they are guilty of notorious conduct.

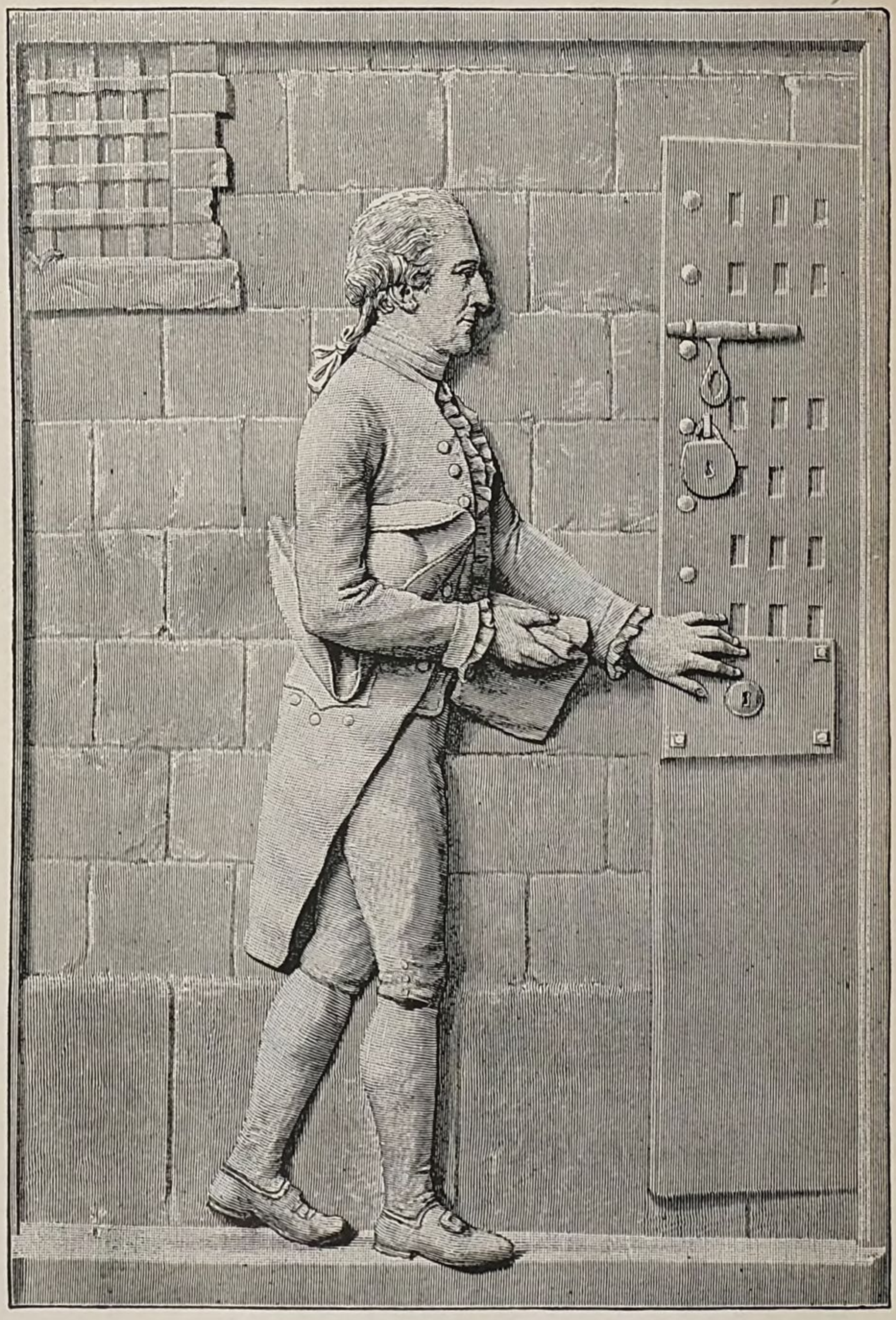
3. To aid in the protection not only of minors brought before the courts for violations of law, but also of those cared for by public charity, or by a charitable association, or even by an individual, the provisions of the law of July 23, 1889, should be applied. * * *

If the search for preventive methods which has already had a large place in the works of the three International Prison Congresses should retain its importance in the future congresses, we can not pass in silence this remark,

That above direct means, which have been indicated, to counteract the pernicious influence of parents or guardians over children or wards, at the time of their conditional liberation or at the expiration of their sentence, should be placed the means of reclamation applicable to these children before any intervention of the courts. The superiority of the measures proposed by the senate of France, distinctly protecting the child before the abuse of paternal power had made him a delinquent or a criminal, will be admitted. It withdrew him at the very time when the abuse of paternal authority took place or at the time of sentence, when he was placed in a reformatory, or at the time of conditional liberation.

Therefore, we do not fear to repeat this conclusion, which is the result of a long experience, namely: That if we wish to arrest the progress of crime, especially with minors, it is of less importance to improve the prison régime for young prisoners than it is to establish, on the ground of charity, the legal, moral, and professional education of abandoned, dependent, and illtreated children.

The reports and discussions relative to child-saving in the preliminary work of the congress and in the congress itself show the extended interest in the subject which has become the most interesting of any connected with penal science. The world every day is learning better the truth that if the child is saved to a good life there will be no grown-up man to punish. It is because of the great importance of the subject and that the congress gave so full a hearing that so much space has been given it here.



JOHN HOWARD.

All that has been said, however, is but a suggestion or intimation of the many things said and done at the congress for the cause of dependent, delinquent, and illtreated children.

PUBLIC CONFERENCES.

PROFESSOR SPASSOWITCH ON JOHN HOWARD.

The series of public conferences at St. Petersburg were inaugurated on the opening day of the congress by Professor Spassowitch. The organization of these conferences is an innovation proposed to the local committee by the International Prison Commission, which desired in this manner to popularize the penitentiary studies and to enlighten public opinion upon every question relative to prevention of crime and the treatment of the condemned.

The subject of the first conference was John Howard. Mr. Spassowitch entertained for more than an hour a large audience upon the life and works of the great philanthropist. We can give here only a brief résumé of that interesting conference, which, with the others, would fill one of the volumes of the proceedings of the congress.

Following is the résumé:

The centennial of the death of John Howard, who died the 20th of January, 1790, was celebrated by a religious service in Russia, and the Prison Commission conceived the happy thought of inaugurating the Fourth Congress by doing homage to the memory of the founder of the present prison régime. The great penal reform, which began in the eighteenth century and continued without relaxation to the nineteenth century, recognizes two men, equally celebrated, but with different titles, who were closely united in thought and work and at the same time unknown to each other—Cæsar Beccaria, the theorist, and John Howard, the man of deeds. The work of Beccaria, "Trattato dei Delitti e Delle Pene," published in 1764, produced a great sensation in Europe, which was owing to the fact that it was a faithful interpretation and exquisite tribute to the great progressive movement of the eighteenth century, tending to demolish the institutions of the Middle Ages, beyond which they had already gone in ideas, sentiments, and customs. Beccaria had by a single stroke convinced the hesitating people and showed with such powerful eloquence the abuses and ancient iniquities to which they still held that the cause of humanity was gained. After having published his book he fell back into obscurity. The ideas of which he was the apostle were not completely realized in Russia until 100 years after the publication of his book—that is to say, by the promulgation of the judiciary codes of Emperor Alexander II, of November 20, 1864.

All others were the precedents of John Howard, who belonged to a nation proud of its political institutions and liberty, but possessing very severe political ethics, boasting of an ardent religious spirit, but lacking tolerance. He was, above all, a religious man, a Calvinist and

Dissenter, but his religious austerity gave way to a nature charitable in the highest degree and benevolent by an imperious necessity of his moral being. Born in 1726, and 12 years older than Beccaria, he had no fixed calling at the age of 40 years. It was only in 1773, when he was appointed sheriff of Bedford, that he found his vocation and was able to give employment to his active powers with profit to his fellow creatures. Without troubling himself with theoretical questions upon the right to punish, he limited his attention to the régime of prisons only, but he appropriated to himself that domain and reigned there as master. By his method of investigation, and the extraordinary exertion he bestowed upon the collection and classification of facts, and finally by the generalization of these facts, a generalization so fruitful that it held for him the place of imagination, he became almost an inventor and creator of systems. He explored to the depths repeatedly every prison of Great Britain, took an active part in the reorganization of English prisons by acts of Parliament, began a series of voyages abroad, explored all the European continent from Spain and Constantinople as far as Stockholm, St. Petersburg, and Moscow, always with one fixed purpose, but enlarging his ideas more and more, and understanding in the end, thoroughly, prisons, schools, and hospitals. An ardent love of truth gained the ascendency over his English prejudices, impressed as he was with the sentiment of national superiority. He confessed that he had blushed for his native land many times; that the nations on the Continent far excelled England in prison construction. He appropriated every useful invention, whatever might be the country where he found it. After having become acquainted with prisons in Holland, and at Ghent in the Austrian Flanders, he borrowed the idea of compulsory labor for prisoners. The superior organization of this reformatory work, although compulsory, was a ray of light for Howard. He made it one of the three principal foundations of his programme, the two others being discipline and an education especially moral and religious.

Feeble in constitution and submitting voluntarily to a régime of life almost ascetic, eating only vegetables, abstaining from every kind of intoxicating drink, Howard was still far from being separated from the world; on the contrary he took a lively interest in it, displaying many times qualities of an intrepid soldier. He showed proof of physical courage and of great moral resolution, speaking fearlessly and without reserve to the powers of the world and to sovereigns. The distance traveled by him in his penitentiary and sanitary researches was enormous and amounted to 4,200 miles. That was without precedent in an age when railroads were unknown. He expended in the promulgation of his ideas a fortune of £30,000, and, without being a man of letters, he wrote an admirable book which will remain as one of the remarkable monuments of the literature of the eighteenth century, "The State of Prisons in England and Wales," Warrington, 1777.

The ideas of Howard were not immediately adopted in Russia. They were counteracted even in England by the adoption, against his opinion, of transportation for the higher crimes to Botany Bay. It was not until 1857 that England definitely renounced transportation and returned to the proposition of Howard; that is, to a system beginning by the most severe confinement and step by step leading to greater privileges and gradually to a return to society.

The same problem appeared in Russia after the liberation of the serfs in 1861. It was then expected there would be a definite abandonment of transportation to Siberia and to the island of Saghalien; that is to say, the employment at the same time of a double system of imprisonment for ordinary crimes and transportation for the greater—two systems often contradictory, more difficult to perfect than a single system which was consistent and homogeneous. The immense task incumbent on Russia at this time can not be accomplished by science alone, nor by the Government alone. It requires the coöperation of the intelligent classes, not by pecuniary aid only, but by personal efforts; above all, by the patronage of prison aid societies, which do not exist and which are to be formed. The example of Howard is, above all, valuable to Russia in attracting philanthropists and as demonstrating what a private person may do by his persevering efforts.

The conference was followed by a very pleasant reception by the mayor in the Hotel de Ville.

PRISON REFORM—TANCRED CANONICO.

On the 16th of June there was a public conference at which Mr. Tancred Canonico, a distinguished senator of Italy, was the speaker. His address covers so well the principal questions of prison reform it is given in full. His thoughts may not differ from those expressed by some of our best writers on that subject, but they indicate at least the similarity of sentiment in those best informed. Senator Canonico has long been known as a very able writer on various questions relative to prisons, and this is one reason for this attempt to transfer his views to our language. He spoke as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: It is a matter of no small importance when so many persons from various countries, many of whom are eminent, are met for so important a purpose as the security of the public and the moral reform of criminals. But a special emotion moves our hearts when we see ourselves welcomed with such a splendid and cordial hospitality; when we see the marked interest in our work shown by His Majesty the Emperor, who has named as the honorary president of the congress a prince so intimately allied with the imperial family, whom I see with gratitude listening to my poor words, honoring the opening of our sessions by his presence and that of his august and gracious wife; in seeing ourselves surrounded by so many distinguished ladies, having at their head an imperial princess who has always devoted herself to improving the condition of prisoners, faithful to the noble and holy mission of woman, aiding by thought and action all efforts for the relief of the moral and physical miseries of humanity. By the union of so many brilliant attractions there is about us an atmosphere of heat and light which warms the heart and

brightens the intellect. The most noble faculties are elevated by this inspiration. While I speak I shall feel this, but at the same time I shall experience a difficulty above all in presenting all I would say clearly in a language which is not my own. Consider then, I pray you, not the speaker, but the truth that is spoken. Reflected by the ocean or by a drop of water the sun is always the sun.

1. *The origin and development of prison reform.*—From the remotest ages criminals have been punished; but in different epochs how differently has punishment been regarded! It is this slow and continual transformation in ideas regarding it which, little by little, changes penal laws and suppresses old systems. Let us follow with a synthetical and rapid glance the gradual change of ideas and we will have the key to the present prison system. Punishment, regarded from a broad point of view, is not alone endured in prison. We can truly say in this respect that the entire world is a great penal establishment. What is man here below and what does he not suffer? And all suffering, which is only punishment—mark it well—is the consequence of errors or faults committed by ourselves or by generations that have preceded us. The history of each people and of each individual is identical.

Each man suffers his own secret punishment, be it great or small; but it happens only too often that serious misdemeanors are committed that injure others and imperil the safety of society. Then the social power in subjecting the guilty to a treatment more or less severe, only makes itself the organ, so far as necessary for the public safety, of this general inherent law in the constitution of human nature which, for each deviation from the right way, provides a punishment as a sanction of the true way and as a call for reform. And the treatment of criminals varies not only according to the gravity of the crimes and the guilt of each; not only according to the difference of circumstances, but also according to the idea with which each epoch and each government establishes its penalties and executes them. Every modification in the general idea exerts its influence on the conception of the punishment which should be inflicted on criminals, and consequently on the mode of application.

In the earliest times all suffering and pain was supposed by men who attributed to divinity their vices and passions to proceed from the vengeance of the gods, as a fixed destiny from which men could not escape. In this way even Aristotle regards it as an inevitable necessity that some men should be free and some should be slaves. A heavy and sad atmosphere weighed as lead upon poor humanity. According to the ancient Greeks, Fate was superior to the gods. There was no place for the free judgment of man. Fatalism was the essential character of paganism. It is so in our day with the belief of the Musselman and the people of Asia in general.

This common conception of the penalty to be applied to the punishment of the guilty is converted in time into a sentiment of revenge by society, with the most complete indifference as to the condition of the criminals. The sentiment of justice and the influence of religion modified in some respect this cruel indifference. But it was always a justice purely exterior and coarse, taking account only of the apparent and sensible manifestations of criminal action. Hence came the law of retaliation, so general in ancient times, "An eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth."

But suddenly, in the midst of the somber skies, a comforting ray shone on this unfortunate earth. This celestial ray awakened in the soul the faith that by suffering we can expiate crime; that by suffering man can redeem himself, because suffering enables him to look within his heart, to detect his errors, to detest them, and to repair them, and in that way to remove the evils which have been caused by them. Through this belief a new impulse was given to the mental activity of man. In the midst of his time-worn grief, the poor exile on the earth feels reviving hope. From the depth of his soul he lifts a sigh to this beneficent ray; his heavy eyes look up and are wet with tears. He begins to regain conscience with his moral freedom, as he feels himself delivered from the bondage of sin and passion. The true progress of the people begins thus with the moral advancement of the individual. From that

time punishment begins to develop into repentance. This fruitful transformation elaborated itself during long ages, and continues to-day in the heart of humanity. It has produced, little by little, corresponding changes in many manifestations of social life. There were those upon whom this principle took strong hold for the exclusive object of the moral perfection of themselves and their fellow men. From this class sprang the anchorites and monks, who were only voluntary prisoners; from these the fastings, the mortifications, and the religious penances.

In private life how many griefs are solaced, how many hearts are made glad and revivified by this belief. By it, even in the masses of society, manners are insensibly softened. We see their hereditary enmities end by a solemn peace. Vengeance is tempered by justice, and justice allies itself to clemency.

Sovereign pardon corrects the errors of human justice. The ties between master and slave become less hard, and little by little slavery falls, as the progress of the inferior class advances, and as the conditions of each country permit. The inequality which exists between men is in the nature of things and will always exist. But this inequality will be no more guarded by an impassable barrier. Each raises or lowers himself in social order according to his skill, his work, and his merit. The abolition of serfdom in this great empire, accomplished in the midst of so many obstacles, is not the least glory of the reign of His Majesty, Emperor Alexander II. The difficulties which accompanied and followed this step are inseparable from all great reforms. But they disappear under the action of time, of prudence, and sacrifices, which are necessary in the accomplishment of all real good.

In the meantime it has required centuries to develop the idea of the application of reformation in prison management. When that time arrived the places of punishment began to be called penitentiaries, and the system was called a penitentiary system, the combining of different methods by which an attempt was made to apply the idea of expiation to punishment.

It is not necessary to follow, even in a summary manner, the historical development of the penitentiary system, nor to present a view of the different methods at present existing in the different States; for on the one hand such a review would surpass the limit of this meeting, and on the other, as I address those who know more than myself, I do not desire to abuse their kind attention by useless details. It will suffice to recall by reference the most salient points of the development of these methods, which will be strictly necessary in order to draw some practical conclusions.

The saddest and most glaring fault of ancient prisons being the massing of prisoners in common, the first thing considered was their separation.

In 1677 the Abbé Francis established at Florence a correctional prison on the cellular system. William Penn had already proposed prison labor, with enforced silence, but the principle had not been applied.

The first serious attempt at prison reform is due to Pope Clement XI. In 1703 he constructed in Rome the prison of St. Michael, which is a vast parallelogram, with cells on the two long sides. By separation, education, and moral and religious instruction, they sought to bring back the prisoners to the right road. The words cut in marble, which can be read to-day, "It is a small thing to restrain the wicked by punishment if we do not reform them by a good discipline," contain the essence of all penitentiary reform; so that the construction of this edifice presents the first type of all buildings which, with successive improvements, have since been erected for this purpose.

Maria Theresa, Empress of Austria, followed this example in the prisons which she built in Milan and in Ghent in the second half of the eighteenth century. But these reforms soon found enthusiastic followers in England and America, where the writings of Howard (of whom Mr. Spassowitch presented to us yesterday so living a picture) on the unfortunate condition of prisons and prisoners deeply moved the minds of philanthropists. By the law of 1785 the construction of a cellular prison in Gloucester was ordered, but it was, above all, in America that, under the name of penitentiary system, the reform of prisons assumed a great development.

You are aware that the Society for the Relief of the Unfortunate in Public Prisons (a prisoners' aid society), founded in Philadelphia by the Quakers, began by obtaining some mitigation in corporal punishments and the substitution of imprisonment for execution in some cases, the improvement of Walnut Street prison, and by classifying the prisoners according to the crime committed, and in confining the greatest criminals in separate cells. The example has been followed by many American States. It is scarcely necessary to recall the fact that from 1821 to 1829 there was built in Philadelphia the famous Cherry Hill prison, with nearly 600 cells constructed so as to render communication between prisoners nearly impossible. The isolation is continual. It is modified only by the visits of persons who can aid the guilty in their moral reformation. In Auburn there is established, as you know, isolation during the night, and work in common during the day with compulsory silence.

The several States of the Union have generally adopted one or the other of these systems. In Virginia the Philadelphia system has been adopted for the beginning of the punishment, and the Auburn for the succeeding period.

There was an attempt to introduce the two methods in Millbank prison in England, which was constructed in 1812. Subsequently cellular isolation prevailed there, with some alleviation; a system which was also adopted in Peltonville, inaugurated in 1864. The two systems were likewise attempted in France; the cellular in the prison of Roquette, and the Auburn in the central prisons of Montpelier, Fontevrault, and elsewhere. I can not recall the prisons of France without rendering homage by an affectionate and grateful word to the illustrious Charles Lucas, whose recent loss we deplore. From his youth he powerfully contributed to prison reform, and to the last days of his advanced life he fought for humanitarian reform with all the vigor of a young man. Like a brave soldier he died in the breach. I was honored by his friendship. It is a very sweet duty for me to present here this flower of affection and memory.

Belgium, the different states of Germany, Holland, Sweden, Norway, Switzerland, Russia, Italy, Spain, and Greece have followed with ardor this reform movement in its different manifestations. We have all admired, during these days, the prisons of St. Petersburg. The new penitentiary near the Alexander bridge, over the Neva, known as the Viborg, or new prison, is without doubt one of the finest prisons in Europe. The progress made here is striking; above all since ten years ago, when this branch of the administration was united under one direction, the exclusive jurisdiction of the minister of the interior. It is an honor to the imperial Government, and to the illustrious and eminent officer (Mr. Wraskoy) who has the general direction of the prisons of the empire.

How remarkable that the development of the idea of repentance in the organization of punishment resulted in two prison systems corresponding to the two principal religious orders in which the growth of this same idea produced the system of voluntary repentance, so that Leon Faucher has said with reason that if the world were divided between two prison systems, as it was formerly divided between two great religious orders, it could be said that the Philadelphia system is that of the East and the Auburn that of the West. In the equal development of the same principle applied to two different orders of institutions there is an inward law of human nature that it might be interesting to investigate. But the mind of man is so constituted when it has taken a new direction it does not stop so easily. It was soon perceived that neither of the two systems had an absolute value and neither was exempt from inconveniences. We have seen that in Virginia they had already attempted to unite the two systems by limiting the first part of the punishment to cellular separation. The necessities of colonization in Australia have suggested to the English the idea of the conditional discharge of the prisoner toward the close of his confinement, a discharge always revocable in case of bad conduct. This practice has since been introduced in the system of ordinary punishment. It is thus that the English have begun to distinguish three degrees in temporary punishment, cellular separation, work in common, and conditional discharge.

But Mr. Crofton, whose name is an eulogy, in his work as a member of a commission of inquiry upon the state of prisons in 1853, was impressed by the disorder he found in most places, and he felt profoundly the necessity of an intermediate period of transition between that of work in common and of conditional discharge. The English Government consented to make an experiment in Ireland, and after the good results which followed, it regulated later by an act of parliament the system which is called the Irish.

I do not need to address you on this system in detail, which you understand better than I do. It will suffice to recall that after a period of isolation, where by exclusive contact with reformatory influences they attempt to arouse the conscience of the criminal and to lead him to a firm resolution to live honestly, the prisoner passes to a second period of life and labor in common, where the convicts are separated into different classes according to their conduct.

Then come the intermediate establishments, where the convict puts off the prison uniform; where according to his ability he is given agricultural or industrial work, where he begins to have contact with persons outside in order to become acquainted and more readily find work, when his sentence has expired. A special school is organized to prepare the prisoner to use his liberty well, to show him how to employ himself, and to overcome the difficulties which will meet him on his return to liberty. Finally in the last period of his term comes conditional discharge.

The essential principle of this system is that the convict, having passed in each degree a minimum of time, it depends on his good conduct to raise him to a higher degree; and, on the contrary, he can by bad conduct retrograde from each degree to a lower. Everyone knows the excellent work of Mr. Vander Brugghen on this system. It is impossible to begin reading this work without completing it, such is the interest that the system itself awakens in the reader and such is the love with which the author treats it.

This system has a double object, to individualize as much as possible the application of the punishment adapted to each convict, and to prepare everyone, little by little, for a free, industrious, and honest life.

The fundamental idea of this system responds at the same time to human nature (*non procedit per saltus*) and to the purpose of punishment, which is the safeguard of public security, returning to free life men capable of work, disposed to labor, and of good conduct. It is not surprising then that under different forms this idea has considerably extended and has modified in this way the prisons of different countries. With the exception of perhaps Belgium, where the cellular system during all the imprisonment gives good results, I believe there is not a state in Europe where isolation is exclusively adopted. At the side of prisons of continued isolation, which are becoming more rare, we see rising everywhere prisons with a graduated system. In Italy, after some happy efforts with labor in the open air for the least dangerous among the convicts, all have adopted in the new penal codes the graduated system for long punishments. We have also introduced it in the military penal code, which is at present being studied as much as the nature of military institutions on land and sea will admit.

In extending this principle further, in some states they began to establish conditional punishments for offenses of less gravity; that is to say, the condemned undergoes the punishment only after a second conviction.

With regard to judicial prisons, as they are for a detention which should be brief, applied to the accused whose guilt or innocence is not determined, and during which time it is for the interest of public justice, of public safety, and human dignity that there be no communication between those who are real criminals and those who may not be, every one agrees that the only just and rational system is that of continued cellular separation, although the need of sufficient establishments and financial difficulties prevent in more than one state the entire and complete application of the system.

It is hardly necessary to add that when once the idea of reformation enters the penal institution then comes the desire either to prevent crime in cutting off its sources or to hinder as far as possible the relapse of the criminal on the expiration of the sentence. Hence come the reform schools for the young and societies of patronage. Concerning these complementary institutions of prison reform, the first of which in our days has had a great development, I can not speak now, for they furnish sufficient material for several conferences.

After this summary review of the origin and development of penitentiary reform, I request you to follow me for a short time so that we can together grasp the essential unity of the subject. We can the more easily appreciate the good results which have been obtained, distinguish what is to be avoided and what is yet to be accomplished, so that if we can not fully attain the object sought, we can approach it more and more.

2. *The essence of penitentiary reform.*—I consider only those fundamental principles that are common to all systems, and I understand that the essential unity of prison reform, whatever may be the manner of its application, consists in removing whatever the ancient prisons possessed of cruelty, anti-hygiene, and immorality, and to make the punishment serve for the reform of the criminal. And I ask, in pursuing this noble end, have we not lost sight of the true object of punishment? And in applying this principle, are the means employed adapted to gain the real reform of the guilty?

Observe, then, in what manner we may derive profit from the rapid review we have just made of the prison-reform movement. Consider well the subject upon which I shall address you a few moments longer, if you will give me your kind attention.

The condition of ancient prisons, the treatment and nourishment of prisoners, and their idle congregation were without doubt highly contrary to the health and morality of the prisoners, and consequently to the public interests and social security.

Desiring to remedy these evils, we often fall into the opposite extreme. We have so elaborately attended to the buildings, the cells, the food, and the treatment of the prisoners that many workmen who labor from morning to night to give a morsel of bread to their families, if they knew how they would be treated in certain prisons, they would perhaps prefer—in all save crime—life in the prison to that in their sorry attic. In some places they are so occupied in perfecting their prisons by the best methods of ventilation, heating, pavements, furniture, locks, supervision, and a thousand other details that the essential end of reform, the conversion of the guilty, has imperceptibly passed to a second place. On the contrary, pushing to the extreme the principle of moral reform, it is claimed that so long as the prisoner is unchanged he should remain in confinement. It would be useless, they say, to propose the release of the guilty before the reformation is complete. and the punishment would not be effective, even for public safety, if we returned to society a criminal who would commit new offenses.

In the mean time the great public, seeing these exaggerations, and not seeing much good fruit in those who go out from the prisons, noticing at the same time the increase of crime and that crime is frequently a profession, the exercise of which is only interrupted from time to time some months of the year when the offenders are in prison, cry out, smiling, that all this is but a Utopian theory, pity for rascals to the detriment of honest people. On the other hand the positive school, of which the essential principle is fatalism, founded upon the conditions of a man's organization, innate or hereditary, upon his social surroundings; the locality of his birth and education; upon the impelling causes that determine his actions; sees in all these efforts for the moral reform of the prisoner only the dream of visionaries. And if, in view of public safety, we occupy ourselves with the régime of prisons for the benefit of individual convicts, they see in the criminal only an invalid or an idiot for whom the hospital rather than the prison is the more suitable home.

And, after all, on which side is the truth? I will first say that I am not one of those who despise as folly the influences exercised on the moral tendencies of man, the condition of his organization, the society where he lives, and the circumstances

in which he finds himself. So considerable a part of the human being as is the organization of the body, which is the covering and instrument of his activity and moral actions, can not be set aside when we must estimate the moral value and the imputability of his actions. Two horsemen equally competent in horsemanship can mount, one an excellent horse and the other a sorry jade. If I am obliged to live in an unhealthy place no one can consider it a fault on my part if I am not as well as he who breathes with full lungs the pure air and oxygen of the mountains. The influence even of the bad horse can be such that every progressive movement is impossible; and the influence of a sickly climate can sometimes force me to take to my bed.

Now, all this can prevent the man from acting with entire freedom, but it does not destroy liberty itself. It is only necessary to say that it will require great care to secure utility from a poor horse or to overcome, at least to some extent, the deleterious effect of certain atmospheric conditions. Moral liberty, though narrowed in its exercise, always exists, though at times dormant, and by proper management and more vigorous efforts it can, to a certain extent, overcome these obstacles. Now, it is upon this slight liberty we must act to secure the improvement of the guilty. We tame lions; we can as well tame men.

I will say, in the second place, and I say no new thing, that the ancient prisons were frightful and unhealthy habitations where the criminal stagnated in idleness and filth, where he was poorly fed, and was under the arbitrary power of guards and directors. Now that he has a proper prison and healthy food, obligatory labor and good discipline are not only just but necessary, in the interest of the criminal himself and for that of the public. For, aside from the consideration of the fact that under certain circumstances the unhealthy prison can easily become a center of infection, it is evident that, if the punishment is completed, you return to society a miserable invalid incapable of earning his bread, and in addition to the obstacles which encounter each discharged prisoner he will find the greatest yet—his inability to get work, which, nine times out of ten, will cause him to commit new crimes. Besides, a good hygienic treatment, while improving the physical condition of the prisoner, renders him less irritable and predisposes him to mental struggle to improve himself morally. But every one can see that this self-treatment is powerless to secure the complete reform of the prisoner.

Humane treatment is necessary in order not to destroy or degenerate his vitality. At the same time, we must never forget that according to the immutable law of our being, every penalty entails suffering without which man will never apply himself to the practice of virtue for which his natural inclination is so feeble. By it he will see it is for his own interest to become good that the suffering may cease.

Finally, it is necessary that the condemned endure suffering in order that the punishment may be withdrawn. He should not be treated with cruelty, but he should feel the pain. I will say that the reformation of the guilty, considered in itself, is a thing to be regarded as sacred and the surest guaranty of public security, but it must not be forgotten that it can not be the direct end of punishment, however desirable it may be. Society should aim above all to repair the injury done by crime, and for that purpose it can do nothing better than to proportion each penalty to each crime. During the execution of the sentence as much as possible should be done to reform the prisoner, but when the term is ended society no longer has the right to retain the guilty in prison until his reformation, otherwise society becomes an agent for morals and education only. Proportion between offenses and penalties would then be impossible, since even for the smaller offenses, if the delinquent is not reformed, he might be retained in prison for years and perhaps always, and on the contrary, after some months or even weeks the greatest criminals could be discharged if they show by their conduct they had reformed. That some endeavor to correct delinquents during their sentence and prevent relapses is very well, but to go farther would be to misunderstand the character and limits of the punishing power of society.

But even in thus placing penitentiary reform upon a true basis and within true limits, a grave and final question remains to be answered. With all this help can we reach the reform of the criminal?

A man, although a criminal, does not cease to be a man. He is then subject, as well as the man generally regarded as honest, to the proper laws of human nature. I recall with tender emotion what was said to me some years ago at Christiania by an excellent director of the prison, loved by all who knew him—Mr. Petersen. "They speak to me of criminals," said he. "I am a criminal myself; for if I sound the depths of my soul I see there, in germ, the same crimes which are punishable in prisons. Only education, religion, the love of good, the struggle against self, have prevented the germs from developing and producing bad fruit." What Mr. Petersen said, each of us, if he is sincere with himself, is obliged to say. Then the treatment to apply to the reform of the prisoner is at the bottom the same as for the moral amendment of the free man, but there it is necessary to apply them more rigorously and with energy on account of the greater obstacles arising from vicious tendencies and inveterate habits.

For the efficient treatment of every malady three things are necessary. First, that there be a remedy having intrinsic curative powers. It then follows that there should be a qualified physician who can apply the remedy to the individual case, and finally that the sick should accept the remedy. Without these conditions no cure is possible.

Now the same thing occurs in case of the morally diseased. For the criminal the first efficient remedy is to arouse the conscience. In this he is aided by the recollection of his offense and made to feel how repulsive is crime and how beautiful is a virtuous life. This aids him to eradicate those vicious tendencies that result in crime, and to approach the ideal of a better life. In this movement is the essence of the remedy and secret of reform. Then follows improvement of the morals, which is best promoted by religion, of which all men who know little or much of prisons and prisoners know the beneficial influence. The physician is, above all, the director of the prison, and he ought to be. Entering with a loving and devoted spirit the place of each convict, seeking to possess his confidence, laboring with each according to his disposition; better than any one else he can contribute to the awakening of the conscience. The pivot of prison reform is a good personal direction. But the most essential and difficult thing is that the diseased—that is to say, the prisoner—shall consent to take the remedy. If he will not take it, the fault will not be in the remedy nor in the physician, but in the patient himself. We build prisons, but what is most difficult is to introduce in them the spirit of penitence. For in the spirit of man—above all, of the man thoroughly degenerate—there is such a strength of resistance to reformatory influences that the best efforts fall as upon granite.

Whatever, then, may be the perfections of any prison system that can be conceived, it is impossible to say in an absolute manner that it will secure the reform of the prisoner, because there must be a responsive action in his own nature for which a good prison system prepares the ground, but no human power can of itself work the cure.

Now as a good general, having met great resistance from the height of the fortress he has attacked, seeks to enter by a more accessible passage, this inward resistance which is met in consummate criminals has in these days aroused concentrated efforts for the reformation of the young, it being more easy to arrest vice before it has become crime. In this generation there has been an evolution in penal science analagous to that in medicine. Formerly the physicians treated only the exterior morbid phenomena and applied the remedy to the surface, not preventing the reappearance of the disease. Then began the study into its causes and sources, and the search for suitable remedies. But in time it was noticed that the source of the disease was often from within, and the consequence of habitual illtreatment of the organization in defiance of its natural laws and sickly tendencies, hereditary or acquired. They then occupied themselves in devising a more rational régime to maintain or establish the normal

and just equilibrium of each force, of each faculty, and of each organ. Medicine thus gravitates now to hygienic principles. The same evolution applies to the idea of reform as connected with the punishment of the guilty. At first only the gravity of the injurious results of crime was considered, and they inflicted corresponding material punishments, cutting off the hand of the robber or decapitating the murderer. Passing later to consider in each case the circumstances of the crime and the degree of guilt chargeable to the criminal, they began to proportion the severity of the punishment to each case and to each individual. They thought finally to occupy the time of imprisonment for the moral reform of the prisoner; and hence arose penitentiary reform. At present, seeing the difficulty of the reform of adults, they strive to correct the vicious youth before they become offenders. Thence comes the development of progress in these later days in houses of reform. Behold thus hygiene in penology, which tends to render the employment of remedies less necessary.

The tendency of modern legislation towards the mitigation of punishments requires more energetic action for prevention. In reform schools lies the hope for the moral reform of the dangerous classes. I dare hope that prison reform, if it shall produce no other benefits, will do immense good by leading many eminent men to direct their efforts to the reformation of criminal youth.

In the mean time we should not neglect to do all that may be to reform the guilty whose sentence has expired. Whatever importance is attributed to hygiene the physician who does not aim to prevent disease, and who does not wish to treat the sick, however incurable the disease, is not a good physician.

First, the means employed to reform the criminal does not always fail. There are some prisoners who reform themselves and there are sick who heal themselves.

Besides, should we renounce all efforts for reform when we can not always succeed? As long as there is life there is hope, and this hope should never be renounced. Moral improvement is ordinarily very slow, but the true aim of all progress is not to reach the end at once, but consists in a constant advance. The regenerating inspiration which has made suffering an instrument of moral redemption is born of love. And love is never discouraged. When we succeed in producing with a few only of the hardened criminals a real abhorence of evil and love for the good, do you believe it would be time lost?

It is no small matter to impress on the most degraded of society this principle, superior to all differences of nationality, customs, and opinions, to which all hearts aspire: the moral redemption of man and of humanity.

But this moral redemption began in the world by a power from on high. We should then have faith that a day will come when evil will be vanquished, when truth, justice, and love shall reign here below for the consolation of this poor earth.

RUSSIA AND THE CONGRESS, BY MR. RANDALL.

In the general assembly, June 22, Mr. Randall addressed the congress, expressing the sentiments of the Government and people of America towards the International Prison Congress. He assured the congress of the sympathy of the United States in this work, and the best wishes of the American people for the success of this reunion. He expressed his regret that the penal and reformatory institutions of his country were not represented in the Exposition by exhibits that would have reflected credit upon them. The reason given for this omission was mainly the great distance that separates Russia from America. But the interest felt by the United States Government was so great that it had sent the speaker as a delegate to make an extended report of the work and projects of the congress, and had also instructed

its minister, the Hon. Charles Emory Smith, to attend the sessions as a delegate. Some extracts only are made from this address:

We are [said Mr. Randall] especially gratified that this gathering has assembled in St. Petersburg, for Russia and the United States have always maintained most friendly relations. Russia in a special manner manifested her good will and contributed the aid of her powerful influence at a time when our national existence was imperiled. We shall never forget it, for its memory is too deeply graven upon our hearts.

The opinions which prevail in Russia upon prison and reformatory questions are well known and appreciated in America, and if we rightly estimate the advance in that direction, and the work accomplished under the humane supervision of Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, the distinguished director of the general administration of prisons, we may feel assured of the entire success of the efforts put forth in Russia for progress in penal reform.

The United States has done much for penitentiary science. It has given to Europe the Pennsylvania and Auburn systems, so much introduced in European prisons, and it has originated many methods that have gone into legislation.

In the work of the International Prison Congresses the United States has also contributed the labors of the distinguished Dr. E. C. Wines, without whose initiative these congresses would never have been held. We should never forget in each re-union to recall the memory of Dr. Wines, his life and work.

I take pleasure in assuring you that the study of penology continues to attract interest in America, and is pursued with ardor and ability by eminent specialists. The General Government of the United States has no special prison system. All who are convicted of crime against the General Government undergo punishment in the various prisons belonging to the States. The United States Congress is now in session, and the House of Representatives has already passed a bill which is now in the Senate, providing for the construction of three Government prisons, in which shall be confined those convicted of offenses against the laws of the General Government.[1] It is to be hoped that one of the results of such a system will be the establishment of an approximate uniformity of punishments.

In the report I shall present to my Government I shall not omit to make mention of the numerous and interesting reports presented to this congress, of its deliberations, of its statistical labors regarding correctional establishments, and of the admirable exposition under the direction of the commission of organization.

The United States is par excellence the land of reform and progress, and should unite with all other nations in advancing the progress of prison reform.

Mr. Randall closed by extending the congratulations and good wishes of the Government and people of the United States, and in expressing his conviction that the success of the Congress of St. Petersburg was well assured. His address was warmly applauded, and upon its conclusion the secretary-general moved:

1. That Mr. Randall be requested to present in his report to the Government of the United States the thanks of the congress for its good will and coöperation.

2. To request the bureau of the congress to transmit to the National Prison Association of the United States its grateful appreciation of its works and achievements, and to assure it that this congress preserves a sacred memory of the venerated Dr. Wines.

3. To express to the Rev. F. H. Wines and Mr. Rounds the regrets of the congress for their absence.

These several motions were unanimously adopted.

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[1] This bill became a law.

RESOLUTIONS VOTED BY THE CONGRESS.

SECTION I.—LEGISLATIVE.

Answer to question 1.

1. Treaties of extradition being strictly dependent on the special penal legislation of the different countries, and these enactments at the present time being irreducible to a single type, it would be useless to attempt to introduce in an international convention the names of uniform criminal acts, or a definition of facts which can not be identical.

2. It would be desirable that special penal legislation should adopt the principle of extradition as a general rule, with all the reservations by which each state would find it necessary to restrict it.

3. The exception tending to become the rule, if extradition were adopted in principle by special legislation, international conventions upon extradition could change procedure, and in place of enumeration of criminal acts incurring extradition, they could include the enumeration of criminal acts which would not be the subject of extradition.

The congress expresses the opinion that a study should be made by a common agreement between criminalists of different countries, in view of giving the same denomination and a precise definition to violations of penal law which would be punished by extradition.

Answer to question 2.

1. The state of intoxication, considered in itself, would not constitute an offense. It gives occasion for repression only in the case where it publicly manifests itself in conditions dangerous to personal safety or by acts of a nature to produce scandal or to disturb peace and public order.

2. The usefulness of legislative provisions can not be denied in establishing coercive measures such as confinement in an asylum or a workhouse in regard to persons habitually given to drunkenness who would become a burden upon public charity or private benevolence, and who would give themselves up to a life of beggary or become dangerous to themselves and others.

3. It is desirable to make the proprietors of wine and liquor shops penally responsible for the sale of strong drink to individuals manifestly under the influence of liquor.

4. In case of penal offenses committed while in the state of intoxication:

The state of incomplete intoxication can not in any case exclude responsibility. As a circumstance having influence on the measure of punishment, this state can not be defined by the legislative authority either as a mitigating or aggravating circumstance. Its influence on the measure of punishment depends upon the circumstances of each particular case.

The state of complete intoxication excludes responsibility as a principle, with the following frequent exceptions:

(*a*) When intoxication forms in itself a penal offense, and

(*b*) In case of actions "liberæ in causa" when the author gets drunk knowing that when in a state of intoxication he might or could commit a criminal offense; in the first case, he makes himself responsible for an offense committed with premeditation; in the second case for an offense committed by negligence.

Answer to question 3.

1. The congress is of the opinion that the teaching of penitentiary and criminal science is very useful and much to be desired, and that the scientific study of the application of punishments can easily be reconciled with the requirements of penal discipline.

2. It expresses the view that a chair of penal science should be established in the universities of different countries and that the penal administration should create necessary facilities to sustain and encourage that study.

3. It is of the opinion that the establishment of libraries of penal science in prisons and for the use of officers of these institutions is desirable.

Answer to question 4.

Mr. Sloutchevsky, assistant reporter, submitted the following questions:

1. Can defects which are attributed to short imprisonments be removed by improving the execution of the punishments?

2. If these defects can not be removed by the means above mentioned, could they be usefully replaced—

(*a*) By administration or

(*b*) By conditional condemnation?

3. Is conditional condemnation admissible—

(*a*) For misdemeanors or

(*b*) For crimes?

4. In the definition of criminal acts which ought to be punished by a conditional condemnation, is it not necessary that the legislator have in view the interests of social security and those of the injured party, as well as the public conscience of a retribution merited by every action disturbing legal order?

After a discussion in the first section and in the general assembly the congress has decided to reserve the question.

Answer to question 5.

Upon the report of Mr. Drill, and after a discussion, the section adopted the following resolutions:

1. It will be necessary to omit the question of guilt and of discernment, as far as relates to children, that is to say, to individuals who

have not reached the age of 16 years, and to replace them by the following questions:

Has a child need of the protection of public authority?

Has it need of a simple education or a correctional régime?

2. The choice of measures ought to be determined by the incentives which induced the child to commit offense, and the gravity of this should be determined by the degree of his intellectual developments, by the surroundings in which he has been brought up, by his antecedents and character. The age of the child is also of great importance as an index to his normal condition.

3. The court decides upon the offenses committed by minors from 16 to 20 years of age. It should have the greatest liberty in the choice of punishments, when the minor is pronounced guilty, from a simple reprimand to the ordinary punishment provided for the criminal offense.

The general assembly decided to carry over this question to the next congress.

Answer to question 6.

In order to prevent the receiving of stolen goods it is necessary—

1. To enact in respect to certain dealers, such as bankers or money-changers, jewelers, and furniture dealers, some regulations to prevent the receiving of stolen goods.

2. To regard the receiving of stolen goods not as a case of complicity but as a special offense.

3. To establish a progressive increase of punishment for a repetition of this offense.

Answer to question 7.

1. Referring to the resolutions of the congress at Rome, showing that one of the means advised in order to counteract the deplorable consequences of an immoral training given by parents to their young children is to permit the courts to take away from the parents for a determined time all or part of the rights derived from parental power, when the facts, sufficiently verified, justify such a responsibility on their part, the fourth congress recognizes that the state has the right to ward off the pernicious influence of parents or guardians upon their children or wards.

2. The court, having proved the unworthiness or incapacity of the parents of a delinquent child, will fix at the age of majority the term of tutelary education which it will assign either to the house of correction, or a benevolent institution, or to public or private charity.

The initiative of measures tending to ward off or restrain paternal power will belong to public authority, judicial or administrative, as well as to the institutions above mentioned, in which the child would be confined.

3. The minor in whose favor a discharge from a penal or correctional institution may be granted before the end of the term of condemnation

or of correction will continue to remain under the same guardianship until the end of the term, unless there be need in such case for a special decision of the court.

4. The parents should be obliged to contribute according to their means to the expense of support and education of the children taken away by fault of the parents from their authority.

5. If the circumstances which have caused the warding off or restraining paternal power are changed in such a manner that the child can be restored to its parents without danger to its morality, a new judicial decision can reinstate the parents to the enjoyment of their right to the person of the child.

6. The congress deeming it above all more imperative to prevent the possibility of offenses by children than to take steps for correction where offenses have already been committed, and recognizing that this important consideration is beyond the wording of the seventh question, expresses the desire that the next congress should take up the study of the question whether it would not be useful to admit to the number of preventive means for offenses by children the right of public authority to oblige the parents of a child who is absolutely refractory to place it in an institution of learning.

Answer to question 8.

1. There is no occasion for withdrawing from the jurisdiction of ordinary courts offenses at common law committed by prisoners during their incarceration, of whatever kind they may be, save naturally the case where these offenses are threatened with a special punishment by the laws or regulations concerning order and discipline in the prison.

SECTION II.—PENAL.

Answer to question 1.

1. Labor useful and productive as possible being necessary for prisoners, to whatever penal régime they may be submitted, it is in each country proper to examine how, according to the situation, it can be practically furnished and directed in order to answer the rules and different necessities of penal work, whether by the system of labor for the state or by the contract system.

2. Labor being the important part of penal life should remain subject in its organization and its functions to public authority, which alone has the capacity of securing the execution of penal laws.

It could not then abandon prisoners to the promotion of private interests.

3. In a general manner, but without imposing absolute rules, the system of state labor seems to best facilitate the subordination of work, as of every other part of penal régime, to the end it designs to accomplish. But, on account of the difficulties that the organization of pub-

lic labor presents, it can be seen that the administration may resort to contracts or private industries, provided that the utilization of manual labor does not constitute the domination of a contractor over the person and life of the prisoner.

4. In the organization of prison labor and especially in that of labor for the state, it is desirable that the advantages of prison manual labor be reserved to the state, and the view is expressed that the state be consequently, as far as possible, at the same time, producer and consumer of objects manufactured by prison manual labor.

Answer to question 2.

1. Being under strict obligations to make the prisoners work, it is inevitable and necessary that their manual labor produce as useful results as it should in a free life.

Nevertheless the work of prisoners, if it is organized with discretion under the control of an administration that should be always master of regulating conditions, seems only able to constitute in respect to free labor a competition of little importance.

It would seem after all that this competition can not be made justly the subject of complaint when the question is either of agricultural labor in the interest of the public, having the advantage of avoiding the depreciation of field laborers, or of industrial labor for the benefit of prisons, or for other public services on behalf of the state.

In a more special manner and without intending to fix absolute regulations, it is thought best to recommend:

(1) That manual labor should be utilized as far as possible, and without doing injury to the necessities of penal work, for the wants of the prisoner and for the use of the prison.

(2) That the advantages likely to result from this manual labor be reserved as far as possible to the state, and not contribute to the gains of the management of private enterprises.

(3) That the arrangement of the effective forces of each industry in a determined place, the choice of the variety and compensation of these industries, the disposition of salaries and schedules of work, be so combined as not to allow protection, privileges, or abusive forces to be constituted, capable of depressing corresponding free industries.

(4) That public authority always preserve in some manner of organization of work, whatever it may be, the means of warding off every abusive competition which arises without reducing the prisoners to idleness and without abandoning them to the management or the power of contractors and certain industries.

Answer to question 3.

1. A system of reward and encouragement, material and moral, for the prisoners, fixed by regulation at the discretion of the administration,

is efficient in the interest of good discipline as well as reform of prisoners.

2. The measures indicated should be a reward for assiduity in work and of good conduct as far as may be without prejudice to the serious character and purpose of punishment.

3. It is proper to give the greatest scope to all lawful means of encouragement and reward, such as hope of shortening sentence, authority to buy books, to send aid to their families, etc.

4. In the way of material encouragement, the authorization of better food is admissible, which, without assuming the character of luxury, appears beneficial in a hygienic view.

5. The prisoner can be authorized to make use, for his material and moral needs, of a share of his earnings in a measure limited by general regulations and at the discretion of the director of the institution in each special case.

6. The part of the competence reserved should be intrusted at the time of the liberation of the prisoner to the authorities of societies of patronage, who would charge themselves with making payments to the prisoner by installments in proportion to his needs.

7. Disposition by the prisoner of his patrimony outside of his competence can be allowed as a means of satisfying his wants in prison only by the authorization of the director.

Answer to question 4.

1. In the infliction of penalties intended at the time to punish the guilty, to place him beyond the possibility of wrong doing, and to give him means to reinstate himself, and the punishments of long duration permitting more than others the hope of the reformation of the condemned; the organization of these punishments should be inspired by principles of reform, which regulate punishments of short duration.

2. Every convict condemned to a punishment of long duration should be placed at first in a cell for a certain time.

3. After the time in a cell, day and night, has expired, when the condemned can be admitted to work in common during the day, he should continue to be confined in the cell during the night.

4. The administration should organize work, as far as possible, in the open air and in preference public work, but on the indispensable condition that this work will be established in such a manner that the prisoners will never come in contact with the free population.

5. Conditional liberation will be awarded only with every possible discretion and in following a gradation agreeing with the reform of the prisoner.

6. Patronages should be established, either by private initiative or by the administration, to protect the condemned during the time of their conditional liberation and to watch over them after their definite discharge while they do not seem completely reformed.

The congress expresses the view that the question on life punishment should be put in the order of the day for the next congress.

Answer to question 5.

1. It is of the highest importance for the interests of prison work to insure well the recruitment of officers, employés, and agents of the prison service.

2. With regard to the manner of pursuing that course it is necessary to distinguish between the higher and lower offices.

3. It is important in the first place to determine the conditions of admission to these positions. The following should be delegated by preference: To higher offices persons in possession of the general information which the offices require; to lower offices, as far as possible, old soldiers who have finished their obligatory service.

4. The preparation of candidates for the highest offices will include—

(*a*) Certain courses of study and of the theory of penal science;

(*b*) And the practical study of every detail of prison work, directed by the chiefs of model prisons: The course finished, the candidates in question will be registered on the lists presented to the administration qualified to make the appointments.

5. The preparatory instruction for candidates to the lower offices will include above all practical penal work which will correspond, for example, with the instruction of guardian schools operating in certain countries, this service being directed by experienced prison superintendents in the same places in the department in which the candidate will enter upon his duties.

6. It is essential to guaranty the officials emoluments and advantages corresponding to the importance of the work, so honorable and so difficult, which they are carrying on for the good of society. An extreme parsimony could only be detrimental in every respect.

Answer to question 6.

(1) Without admitting that in a penal and penitentiary point of view there may be criminals or delinquents absolutely incorrigible, experience shows that in fact there are certain individuals who prove themselves insensible to this reformatory influence, and who return, by force of habit as well as by profession, to the violation of the laws of society. The congress expresses the opinion that especial measures should be taken against such individuals.

(2) In this order of thought, without directing attention to the principles of different legislatures, and reserving the liberty to choose the means corresponding best to particular conditions of each state, the following measures are recommended for study in different countries:

(*a*) Imprisonment, for a sufficient time, in institutions or workhouses where compulsory labor is required is applicable to certain individuals, as beggars, inveterate vagabonds, etc.

(*b*) Prolonged imprisonment or, according to the case, transportation to certain territories or possessions belonging to interested countries, in order to utilize lost forces; but always with guaranties that should insure support for those who are deprived of their liberty and a possibility of regaining entire liberty by good conduct, especially according to the system of conditional liberation.

These measures should not be prejudicial to placing in special institutions of assistance persons adjudged incapable of providing for themselves materially by their work.

Answer to question 7.

1. It is desirable that special prisons be established for preventive detention as far as it is possible; otherwise that a special part of the institution be designated for the imprisonment of the accused.

2. Individual separation should be adopted as a general rule for preventive detention, and be replaced by imprisonment in common during the day upon the expressed desire to that effect by the prisoner if judicial or administrative power authorizes it.

3. Individual separation should also be applied to minors when they are in a state of detention; it will only be ordered in case of absolute necessity, and it is desirable in principle that minors under 17 years of age should enjoy liberty until authority decides definitely upon their condition.

4. Individual separation should be replaced by imprisonment in common for prisoners who can not endure close confinement because of their health, on account of their advanced age, or physical or mental condition.

5. The prisoners should be treated on the basis of common law. Preventive detention should only involve restrictions required to accomplish its purpose and the desire to maintain order in the prison.

6. Local administration can be made available in respect to prisoners only by such measure of discipline as is provided by regulations and restrictions necessary to maintain order and tranquillity.

7. The supervision of societies of patronage organized for discharged criminals should also extend to persons after acquittal.

Answer to question 8.

It is desirable that all prisoners should receive work corresponding as far as possible to their capacity; the diversity and comparative facility of certain work are not contrary to the demands of a rational penal theory.

Answer to question 9.

The progressive system which begins with cellular confinement with labor corresponds to the nature of punishments of medium duration.

Answer to question 10.

If the progressive system for prisoners of a long term is accepted, it would be possible and also desirable to make them work in open air, provided they are separated from free laborers. This work can be organized in the country, or even in the confines of the city.

Answer to question 11.

The congress expresses the view:

(*a*) That international penal statistics should be prepared for each session of congress.

(*b*) That this work should be intrusted to the penal administration of the countries in which congress might meet.

(*c*) That the investigations should treat of the second year which follows that of the former congress.

(*d*) That the tables annexed to the report of Mr. Beltrani-Scalia should be admitted in principle as a basis of these international statistics.

(*e*) That the publication should be accompanied by a report analyzing the results shown, and making known the state of penal statistics in different countries.

SECTION III.—PREVENTIVE MEANS.

Answer to question 1.

The congress expresses the opinion:

1. That societies of patronage should be established wherever they do not now exist, and that relations between societies of patronage or societies of benevolence in different countries should be established in the general interest of works of patronage, and also in order to bring aid in the most efficient manner to persons needing patronage.

2. That to this end conventions should be established between different societies which should have for their aim:

(*a*) To insure a regular and reciprocal exchange of experience.

(*b*) To set forth the principle that patronage should extend to foreigners; regarding always the police regulations of each country.

(*c*) To insure the return home of discharged prisoners, if they so desire, or to secure them work in another place.

3. That in view of their return home special supervision should be taken of their earnings, their clothing, and discharge papers, and their free passage.

4. In the aim of facilitating the establishment of an institution of international patronage, it is desired that societies of patronage which exist in all countries should be united in creating a central national organ.

Answer to question 2.

1. The unity of interests which exists, and of questions which are proposed between administrations charged with penal services, and of

police on one side, of public or private services of assistance, and of benevolence on the other, requires a harmony between different institutions, a harmony conformed to the needs of each country.

2. To give more force to this understanding, it is desirable that there should be created societies, congresses, or conferences, in which will be united representatives of such societies.

3. It is especially desirable that the state define by law or by ordinance the obligations intrusted, under reserve of their rights and of their initiative, to societies or public or private establishments, especially in what concerns the administration of the competence of liberated children, in every case, as well as adults, if they need patronage.

4. To facilitate the mission which is incumbent on societies of patronage, it is desirable that the state, the province, the community, or private societies erect and support workhouses.

Answer to question 3.

1. The congress expresses the desire to see generalized, in their different forms of application, the work of children morally abandoned and measures of protection and of education for unfortunate childhood.

2. In accordance with experience, it would be necessary to combine the system of placing in families with that of placing in institutions, the two systems considered separately presenting advantages and disadvantages.

3. Everywhere it is expedient in endeavoring to conduct the interests of the institutions to remove them as far as possible from systems termed "congregate," and to organize them after the principle of family education—that is to say, after the cottage system.

4. The placing in families can be permitted, especially in the following cases:

(*a*) For the youngest children, especially girls not morally compromised and of a healthy constitution.

(*b*) For children morally neglected or guilty, after a sufficient lapse of time, when they will have been improved or corrected in an institution.

(*c*) For children whose correctional education is finished and who are still under patronage.

5. For the interest of education in families it is recommended that free organizations of education or societies of patronage or competent committees established by public authority should make it their study—

(*a*) To make a judicious choice of the family in which they can intrust the children.

(*b*) To direct these families.

(*c*) To supervise their education.

(*d*) To regulate supervision after established principles.

6. It would be desirable that on one side the heads of houses of education, and on the other side the committees of family education of

each district, should establish between themselves a cordial understanding, in order to be able to exchange protegés and to combine thus the two kinds of education after the individual needs of the latter.

Answer to question 4.

1. It is recommended that societies of patronage should have the opportunity to become interested in the situation of the families of prisoners before they have recovered their liberty—

(*a*) In order to insure, as much as possible, the maintenance of family affections.

(*b*) In order to aid especially the family of the prisoner if his detention has caused serious detriment to minors, the old, or the infirm.

2. To attain this end the societies of patronage should mention it expressly in their statutes, and place themselves in connection with every local authority, administrative or religious.

Answer to question 5.

1. The congress expresses the opinion that besides concerning itself with individuals in a state of conditional or definitive liberation, who are placed under the patronage of a society, this society should also exert itself in an energetic and direct manner, with the coöperation of police service.

2. It considers as a real impediment to patronage, as an obstacle to every renewal of work, and consequently as a fatal cause of relapse in discharged criminals, revelations concerning them which could be very easily made to private individuals of information contained in judicial files, or found in the hands of the police.

3. It is also essential that police service should not go to patrons or directors of institutions, to demand information of the conduct and work of persons placed after their liberation under the patronage of societies, said societies remaining responsible to public authority.

This opinion extends to patronage of reformed girls.

Answer to question 6.

In order to interest the public in penal and preventive questions, it is desirable:

1. That ministers of different religions should coöperate in this work by devoting a Sunday in addressing their congregations in regard to prisoners.

2. That the support of the press should be given to the solution of these questions.

3. That competent men should organize conferences, and publish special articles upon the questions of public interest mentioned.

4. That members of every social class should join patronage or prison aid societies.

CLOSING OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY.

The closing session of the congress was held in the hall of the palace of the nobility at 11 o'clock, June 24, under the presidency of Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. The Prince d'Oldenburg and the princess occupied the imperial section, accompanied by Mmes. Chérémétiew and Narysch-kine and others of their suite. After the completion of the ordinary business of the day the president made his closing address, as follows:

GENTLEMEN: The session of to-day is, as you know, the last of the present congress, and thanks to your zeal there only remains one question to discuss, the fifth of the first section upon legislation concerning childhood, which awaits your decision. But I am convinced by exchange of opinions this question will require more profound study, and I believe it will be more prudent to refer it to the next congress. The discussions which have taken place on this question will appear in the acts of the congress and will furnish material worthy our attention without requiring us to decide now when there is such a divergence of opinion in our assembly, which shows that the question is not yet sufficiently discussed.

This proposition being approved, I pass to another question of a very different character, but of more considerable importance. I mean the choice of a place for the coming session of the Fifth International Prison Congress. I have been informed, though confidentially, that the Government of the French Republic is disposed to receive the future congress in Paris. I await, then, the expression of your sentiments that I may convey the same to that Government. [Unanimous approbation is given.]

In congratulating you, gentlemen, on the striking unanimity of your choice for the location of the next congress, I request my eminent and cherished colleague, Mr. Herbette, to please present to the Government of France our sentiments in this respect.

In responsé Mr. Herbette spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: Permit me to say how highly we appreciate the words pronounced by the president and the sentiments he has expressed. If some of our colleagues have hoped that their country would have been honored with the next congress, which has been so graciously offered to us, we sincerely regret their disappointment. But we can not refuse to give testimony to our devotion and loyalty to prison work. If you consider that the designation of Paris responds most fully to the general wish, I sincerely hope that your request will be deferred to.

Certainly you know how difficult it will be to receive the succession which is offered us after the *eclat* and brilliancy that the Government of His Imperial Majesty has given to this congress. But the hospitality of Paris will fortify and not efface the memory of our reception in St. Petersburg. Instead of refusing the succession, with the obligations which follow, you are assured that, so far as it depends on us, far from declining it, it will be accepted with the most cordial gratitude.

The president then renewed his discourse, saying:

GENTLEMEN: It now remains for me to accomplish the most agreeable duty, to express to you our gratitude for the active part you have taken in the work of the congress, securing for it the most complete success possible. The memory of your valuable and efficient labors will remain forever engraved on our memory, and the transactions of this congress will transmit the truth of this to the latest times.

To work with you, gentlemen, offers a double advantage, if I may use the term; first, to find in you such love for the work in which we are engaged and desire for good results; and, secondly, the satisfaction that lies in the personal acquaintances we form which has the special charm of being certain and sincere.

These, gentlemen, are the reasons which will perpetuate the grateful memory which animates, without exception, all Russian hearts.

May you, gentlemen, whom I address as dear friends and colleagues, equally retain a pleasant memory, on returning to your own countries, recalling distant Russia and your sojourn with us. It is with this wish, which I express from the depths of my heart, that I declare closed the session of the Fourth International Prison Congress of St. Petersburg.

Mr. Herbette spoke again at some length, and at the close he was made the organ of the congress to request of Prince d' Oldenburg that he present to His Majesty the Emperor and Her Majesty the Empress the profound gratitude of the congress.

On the rising of the congress, Prince and Princess d' Oldenburg descended from the imperial section and spent some time socially with the members and assured them that their friendly sentiments should be faithfully presented to the Emperor and Empress.

CLOSING OF THE FIRST SECTION—PENAL.

The closing scenes of the three sections in their several halls were quite interesting to the members. Coming together from twenty-six different nations, comparatively unacquainted, but with one purpose—the discussion of questions of vital interest to society—the meetings had all been in the best spirit and the discussions had been marked by earnest yet friendly debate. Personal acquaintances were formed which promise to be enduring and profitable to the cause which brought them about.

The final session of the first section—penal—was held on the 21st of June, opening at 9 o'clock a. m., under the presidency of Mr. Pols. The time was principally occupied in concluding the discussion on questions not before disposed of and adopting conclusions to be referred to the general assembly.

After this business had been disposed of the president, Mr. Pols, in moving and eloquent terms thanked the section for its coöperation in the good work which had been accomplished and for having solved questions of so much importance. He likewise thanked the reporters and assistant reporters, who, by their fruitful and intelligent labors, had aided to such a useful extent in presenting theses on the various reports. He ended by requesting that resolutions be adopted expressing the thanks of the section to the secretaries for the efficient manner in which they had discharged their duties. This was agreed to. The discourse was warmly applauded.

Mr. Golovine, secretary, responded, thanking for himself and his colleagues the section for the honor extended; and Mr. Neklioudow, in behalf of the section, expressed his warmest gratitude to Mr. Pols, the president, for the able and impartial manner in which he had presided during the different sessions.

After the exchange of these complimentary sentiments the president declared the first section of the Fourth International Prison Congress closed.

CLOSING OF THE SECOND SECTION—REFORMATORY.

The reformatory, or second section, closed its labors on the 21st of June, under the presidency of Mr. Goos, who spoke in substance as follows:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: The programme of the work of the second section has been exhausted. I congratulate you upon this result. At the Congress of Rome we were not so fortunate. We were then obliged to refer to this congress several important questions. I believe this action was not well received. By our achievements on the present occasion the section has proved its corrigibility and has secured its reformation. I dare say that this result has been reached without injuring in any way the real value of our work. I believe I can prove that our labor has not only been constant, but that it has been useful and productive. The honor of this is due to the zeal of all the members of the section; to the eminent speakers who have addressed us in the course of our discussions; to the conscientious reporters who have submitted their conclusions, and to the subcommittees. To all I address the thanks of the presidency. I have yet some other thanks to express. It is not proper for a section to express the deepest gratitude which we all feel for the grand hospitality which has been extended to us by this great city, this great Empire and its Government. This duty will be discharged in the general assembly. Hence I abstain. But it is my agreeable duty to address, first, my sincere thanks to the vice-presidents, who with extreme kindness have taken the chair when necessary, and who in many cases have assisted by their wise counsels. I especially address my thanks to Vice-President Senator Blanc, who presided at one of the most laborious sessions, discharging the duties in so happy a manner.

In the second place I tender my warmest thanks to the secretaries of our section, whose kindness to me has been touching; but what is of higher importance, they have filled their necessary and fatiguing positions with zeal, good will, and intelligence that are above eulogy. Certainly all members will join in this tribute.

And now, ladies and gentlemen, I declare the second section of the Fourth International Prison Congress closed.

The secretary of the section, Baron Taubé, responded for himself and his assistants, thanking the president for the honor extended, and concluding in these words:

We will all cherish the memory of having had the honor of participating in the labors of the Fourth International Prison Congress, a work so fruitful and so humane.

CLOSING OF THE THIRD SECTION—PREVENTIVE.

This session closed June 21. The writer was one of the vice-presidents of the second section, but was inscribed on the rolls of the third, which he attended. The work of this section was at least equal to any in interest. Here the great and more especially modern questions regarding the prevention of crime were most fully discussed. The president was Mr. Jagemann, who was peculiarly and highly qualified for the position. A ready debater, thoroughly informed on the subjects considered, conversant with the methods of conducting the sessions, fluent in the use of the French as well as of his own language, he greatly facilitated the labors of the section.

At the close he spoke as follows:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I had intended to prepare a closing address, but I have been unable to do so. The honors they have heaped upon us and the festivals and

pleasures they have bestowed on us have taken all my time. But the simple words which I have the honor to address to you are those of sincerity and from the heart, which makes them the best language. I am moved with lively satisfaction that we have adopted conclusions for the various questions of the programme referred to this section, and with a gratitude without limit to you all.

Our section has had the particular compliment of having confided to it the dearest interests of religion and humanity, the social duties of charity, and benevolence with the prevention of crime. That which prevents crime renders the most important service. In this noble task of which I speak we enjoy the special advantage of the assistance of ladies in this section.

The conclusions adopted by this section are free from fanaticism and idealism. They have had in view only the true needs based on experience. All our propositions have been approved by the general assembly. There only remains the last question to approve. The good results of our sessions are due to you all, and I thank you for your confidence and your indulgence. But there are in your midst some gentlemen who deserve special mention. In the first place, we should not forget the excellent preparation for the congress by the commissioners of organization, and in throwing a retrospective glance over our work we particularly regret the absence of our venerated vice-president, Mr. Voisin, who has been, so to speak, the editor-general of our theses, to which he has given the benefit of his intelligence and experience. Our reporters have supported our propositions before the general assembly with great success. But if we are asked who has done the most work, it is impossible not to designate the secretary of the section, Mr. Tsékhanovetsky, on account of the zeal and devotion which distinguish him and his fellow-workers. It is the work behind the scenes, which you do not see. But I, who have been behind the scenes, have seen and appreciated it. While we have been attending banquets and excursions, when we were admiring the wonders of St. Petersburg, Mr. Tsékhanovetsky and his colleagues labored to dispose of our work. When our sessions are finished we are free, but it is then that for the secretary begins the most unremitting labor, a work which prolongs itself into the night, if we can speak of there being any night in St. Petersburg.

To you, ladies and gentlemen, I offer the sincerest gratitude of my heart. It will forever be a precious memory to me that I have labored in common with you and that I have added Russian friendship to the acquaintance previously formed at the congresses of Germany, Rome, Frankfort, and Fribourg, and I shall carry with me the pleasant recollection of a brilliant sojourn in the capital of this hospitable and generous country, where we have been accorded the most gracious reception.

Senator Theophile Roussel said:

In the absence of Mr. Felix Voisin, vice president of the third section, who would have expressed to the president, Mr. de Jagemann, the thanks of his countrymen, I have been requested by the French members of this section, in my capacity as dean and by virtue of my age, to present their thanks. Mr. de Jagemann has said that he feared the use of language other than his own would not permit him to fulfill his task as well as he desired. Since Mr. de Jagemann understands I am the interpreter of the French who are present, I do not offer him a commonplace compliment in avowing our unanimous opinion that it would be impossible to add to the perfect impartiality, the clearness, and the precision with which he has discharged the functions of president, and that he has used most skillfully and correctly the French language. This is why I am happy at this time and at the close of this section to discharge a duty in expressing to our excellent and honored president not only my personal gratitude, but also the sincere and cordial thanks of my countrymen.

M. Tsékhanovetsky, secretary of the section, then spoke as follows:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I have the honor to speak in the name of myself and my assistant secretaries. I do not speak to occupy your time, but to assure you of

our profound appreciation of the honor that you have done us by your approval and thanks. We are happy, gentlemen, to have been able to hear so many eminent gentlemen who have presented to us so many grand and noble ideas upon the good that may be done and the results yet to be accomplished in the work for the protection of suffering and unfortunate humanity.

We are all novices in the position of secretaries, and notwithstanding the good-will that animates us we may not have satisfied every member of the section. Intent on preserving the ideas and opinions of all for the good of the cause which has brought us together, we have done as well as we could and ask your indulgence. Permit us finally, gentlemen, to express our very sincere sentiments in heartily thanking our eminent president, Mr. de Jagemann, for the kind indulgence with which he has guided us in our task, and which has converted a serious duty into a pleasure. This, Mr. President, is not a simple formality; it is, I assure you, the sincere expression of high respect and gratitude.

Count Skarbek said:

It remains for us, ladies and gentlemen, to discharge the agreeable duty of thanking our honorable president for the remarkable manner in which he has guided these debates. It is certainly to his energy, to his talent, and to his delicacy that we owe in great part the satisfactory results we have reached and the full approbation of the general assembly.

Complimentary addresses were also made by Mr. de Epstein, Mr. Pierre de Messoiédow, and Count Khorinsky. Mr. de Jagemann closed the session, saying:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: You have complimented me very much and I accept your kind regards with great satisfaction. I regret that the days of the congress have closed, but allow me to express a hope in saying, *Au revoir*.

This and the other addresses were warmly applauded. Space has been given such addresses since they throw much light upon the estimation in which the congress, its members, and its labors were held by representatives of different countries.

REVIEW.

One of the first questions naturally raised is, how does the congress of St. Petersburg compare with its predecessors; and the next is, what are the results of the last congress, and were they satisfactory in showing an advance movement? To compare the labors of the several congresses, the following statistical table is presented:

	The International Prison Congress of—			
	London, 1872.	Stockholm, 1878.	Rome, 1885.	St. Petersburg, 1890.
Total number of members	341	297	234	740
Residents of the country where the congress was held	192	155	141	563
States represented	24	26	25	26
Number of official delegates	76	45	48	69
Questions on the programme:				
First section—Penal	10	4	6	8
Second section—Reformatory	13	6	8	11
Third section—Preventive	5	4	8	6
Total	28	14	22	25

	The International Prison Congress of—			
	London, 1872.	Stockholm, 1878.	Rome, 1885.	St. Petersburg, 1890.
Number of preparatory works:				
First section—Penal	9	11	25	46
Second section—Reformatory	3	21	24	57
Third section—Preventive	4	17	18	36
Total	16	49	67	139
Questions on which congress indicated a solution:				
First section—Penal	2	4	5	7
Second section—Reformatory	8	6	5	11
Third section—Preventive	5	4	7	6
Total	15	14	17	24

The above table indicates the comparative numbers and labors of the different congresses. The questions discussed at the fourth congress were as interesting as any, and the ability shown in the preliminary addresses and in the discussions were equal to those of the former congresses. The value that each has had for the science of penology can not be measured or compared. That they have all been of special value in Europe in awakening interest in all questions pertaining to prisons can not be denied; nor can it be regarding the influence they will exert especially in the countries where the sessions were held. It will be noticed that in the fourth congress there were inscribed 563 Russians. Their names, residences, and vocations will be given in the official report of the congress. The public will then see there the highest representative names of the Empire. The state, the schools, the universities, the industries, the penal and reformative as well as the preventive institutions will be found well represented. The Russian Government in every way encouraged a large attendance of its educated citizens, specialists, etc. These representatives came from all parts of the Empire, and all interests were represented. During all the discussions there never appeared on the part of the Government or any Russians any attempt to interfere with the utmost freedom of discussion. The Government by its officers and delegates were always ready, in conversation or otherwise, to explain the features of the Russian prison system, which system they also very fully exhibited in the great exposition and in various prisons in Russia and in Finland. The presence in the congress of so many Russians and so many from western Europe taking part in the interviews and discussions must have had a marked influence on the Russian mind, and the good results of that influence will no doubt soon have much to do in advancing prison reform in the great empire. Then the foreign members returning to their various countries with new impressions, information, and experiences of themselves and others will impart their ideas there by reports or addresses, leading to reforms in construction, management, and, above all, prevention. The results of these congresses can not be weighed now, but their

silent influence for good will go on for many years to decrease crime and pauperism and lessen the expenses of the state.

The congress of St. Petersburg adopted conclusions on all the questions submitted excepting on the fifth question of the first section which was referred to the congress of Paris. There has been a growing tendency to discuss the various questions relative to dependent or delinquent children, and as there appeared much diversity of opinion on these questions in the penal section it was thought there should be a more extended discussion.

The fourth congress adopted its conclusions with peculiar prudence. There was shown in the discussions considerable difference in opinion between delegates from the various countries, and so the resolutions were made to conform as near as possible to the general opinion. This may explain the language of some conclusions which do not speak in a positive manner. This conservatism should inspire confidence in the conclusions.

Among the resolutions adopted was one of more than usual interest relative to incorrigibles. In the preliminary papers and in the addresses this subject received very considerable attention. The question of prison labor referred by the Third to the Fourth Congress was another question of great practical interest, which was very freely considered and a conclusion reached. But no questions were more fully discussed in the preliminary papers or in the debates in a more able manner than those of the third section relative to children. It is now admitted by all that the reduction of crime and pauperism can be best attained through the preventive method of caring for and educating dependent children and in caring for and reforming young delinquents. The many papers and addresses on these subjects are full of a vital and timely interest. The Fourth Congress has fruitfully contributed to the cause of the delinquent and dependent children. The congress fully and intelligently appreciated all questions it discussed pertaining to abandoned childhood and considered and decided them with solicitude and great interest. If the congress of St. Petersburg had been held for no other purpose than to discuss these preventive subjects it would have most fully compensated for all efforts made.

The child question will not down. It has come to stay. Where it has in all countries its true place, consideration, and disposition, it will no longer be said that poverty and crime increase in a greater ratio than the population, and it will be said, as it is truthfully said of Michigan to-day, that as population increases poverty and crime decrease. This is not utopian, because it has been proven true and may be again.

The public conference was a new and a successful innovation, and it will doubtless be repeated in 1895 at the Congress of Paris.

There were two things worthy of special commendation and congratulation. They were the constant cordiality which existed among the

members from different countries and the sincere gratitude of all members of the congress to the Russian government for the brilliant receptions and marked attentions constantly tendered them. It is very certain that the foreign delegates deeply appreciated all this kindness, so often, so constantly and kindly manifested, that they will always remember pleasantly their most agreeable sojourn in the great northern Empire and the beautiful days and twilight nights of June in St. Petersburg.

MR. HERBETTE AND HIS OPINIONS.

Mr. Louis Herbette, the chief of the French delegation, councilor of state, director of the prison administration of France, and president of the International Prison Commission, on his return to his country submitted a report of the congress to the minister of the interior. His long experience in prison administration, his voluminous reports and papers touching prison administration and penology generally, his extended labors for the advancement of the several international prison congresses, and his valuable and great labors therein have eminently fitted him for his present many duties and give special weight to his words relative to the object and labors of these congresses. His valuable report dated September 8, 1890, opens with some truthful and interesting opinions which are transferred in full to this report. His words are as follows:

The congresses as now constituted are successive reunions in different countries, in which competent persons meet to discuss the theory and practice of penal and reformatory questions, of which the programme has been prepared in advance. As near as may be the sessions meet once in five years.

They may include expositions, the object of which has been first determined and which will permit uniting theoretical discussions to written or oral explanations, a kind of object-teaching, an exact knowledge of the work or of the establishments verifying the methods followed in each country for each kind of service. This affords an opportunity to collect periodically, for common advantage, memoirs, works, and documents which would otherwise remain scattered and perhaps altogether unknown. They bring about personal acquaintances and a valuable exchange of views between men of all nations who devote themselves to such labors.

They are, we might say, free sessions of penal and penitentiary science. And it is by this struggle against evil, for the cause of civilization and humanity, that this association for study and peaceful emulation ought to profit.

If we consider the preparation of programmes, the preservation of archives, the arrangement, the unity, the necessary continuation for a work of this kind, the permanent intercourse which should be kept up between co-workers, the general direction of operations incident to each congress, the activity which should continue beyond the sessions, finally the persistence and generality of this penitentiary work, as conducted in different countries, we can easily conceive the necessity of a commission, a permanent agency which will guaranty the stability of the institution.

This is the province of the International Prison Commission, to which belong persons officially designated by the countries that consider it useful to labor in this work.

Without doubt official delegations or official missions can be permitted from any State to assist in the congress without joining in the acts of the international com-

mission. And it is no less optional for every administration to remain a stranger and be indifferent to the congress itself.

But by the extension of social science, by the rapid increase of relations between peoples, by the similarity or the unity of interests, by common research for solutions, certain questions daily become more national. No one can suppress this movement and it is natural that each nation should desire to participate in the discussion. The countries most solicitous for moral progress have from the beginning encouraged private initiative. But, the determination and execution of punishments being everywhere subject to public authority, it follows that the agents of power and the heads of the service should unite in the study of reforms which they seek to secure.

It is necessary to ask, if it belongs to the congress to request under the form of a vote to meet in a certain country, can this act of the government give effect to this vote? Also, if the general preparation for the congress falls to the commissioner, whether the methods and material conditions of organization are left to the local committees which are charged with this duty? Thus are clearly separated on one side the general character of the institution which responds to the operations of the international commission, and on the other side the proper organization of each congress on such material foundations, with such measures, and under such circumstances as are best secured by the local committees according to the convenience of the state which has been pleased to extend its hospitality.

It is in accordance with the above designs and aims that the congress of St. Petersburg was systematized, and, thanks to the care of the Imperial Government, its success has been complete.

In order to guaranty entire harmony of action, the office of president of the commission is conferred at the close of each congress upon a member who is an official delegate of the country where the next congress is to be held. The Russian delegate, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, has been consequently president of the International Commission since 1885, and also received from his government the presidency of the commission of organization in St. Petersburg. It is not only a work of five years, but of fifty years, which has led to the international penitentiary work of this congress. Without going back further, it is just to recall the initiative of the men who, with the desire to debate among themselves the interesting problems of the reform of prisons, met in 1846 to the number of 75. They came from France as well as from Germany, from the United States as well as from England, from Belgium as well as from the Netherlands, from Switzerland, Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. The debates continued for three days at Frankfort-on-the-Main. The proceedings were published in German and French.

There was a new reunion in 1847 in Brussells for three days, with nearly 200 members. The report is in French. A third session, projected for the next year in Switzerland or in Holland, was prevented, probably for political causes. The subject did not appear again for ten years, and then on the occasion of the International Conference of Charities at Frankfort-on-the-Main.

In reality it was not until 1872 that was opened the series of International Prison Congresses, such as have succeeded since in Europe with the aid of the governments and by official delegates. This desired renewal of international work was due to the initiative of the Rev. Dr. Wines, corresponding secretary of the Prison Association of New York.

OFFICIAL DISPATCH OF THE HON. CHARLES EMORY SMITH, UNITED STATES MINISTER TO RUSSIA, CONCERNING THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

The Imperial Government of Russia having invited the American Government to partake in the deliberations of the International Prison Congress, the Department of State, in token of its appreciation of the object of the congress, and of its high respect for the Government of Russia, instructed the Hon. Charles Emory Smith, our minister resident at St. Petersburg, to attend the sessions as official delegate. Following this, the writer was appointed associate delegate with instructions to report to our minister, who was named as the chief of the delegation.

Minister Smith, in compliance with his instructions, attended the sessions during the continuance of the congress, and by his presence, influence, and labors did much to advance its interests. An extended report by him of the proceedings would have exhibited an extended knowledge of the objects and labors of the congress, and would have been read with interest in this country by many who would have profited by the perusal of his statements and observations. His knowledge of the subject, his ability as a writer, and his high official position would have commanded for him general attention. He was in full sympathy with the object of the congress and understood well the principles underlying the efforts of this great convention of specialists, and his views would have been influential in commanding favorable opinion. It is to be regretted that he has not said more. But his dispatch to the State Department is reproduced here, which, however brief, embodies much, and conveys to the reader quite a comprehensive view of the congress, its labors and results. The writer gratefully acknowledges the many courtesies and repeated assistance extended to him during the congress by Minister Smith, with whom he had the honor to be thus officially associated.

Mr. Smith to Mr. Blaine.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
St. Petersburg, July 3, 1890. (Received July 21.)

SIR: After a session of 9 days, the Fourth International Penitentiary Congress closed its regular work on Tuesday, the 24th ultimo, amid many mutual congratulations and expressions of good will. The conclusion of its formal labors was followed, upon the invitation of the Russian authorities, by an excursion of 3 days to Finland, and another of 4 days to Moscow. Mr. Randall participated in the former, and all of the American delegates in the latter, which ended yesterday.

The session of the congress is generally regarded as quite successful. In the fullness of its deliberations, in the practical character of its discussions, in the opportunity for a comparison of experience and progress in prison management and in the substantial unanimity of its conclusions, it realized the best expectations. Most of the delegates were men directly associated with penitentiary administration in the various countries, who brought the training and knowledge of experts to the consideration of the several questions embraced in the programme. It is not my province to make a detailed review or summary of the discussions and conclusions of the congress. That survey will be made by Mr. Randall in the report which, as the expert delegate, he will present to the Bureau of Education. But there were some features of the congress which will be of interest to the Department of State, and to which I may properly refer.

In the first place there was no discussion of the internal system or methods peculiar to any particular country, and no reference to any such subject. The questions submitted for the consideration of the congress were, under the usual practice, determined by the international penitentiary commission, which is a permanant body and which constituted the commission of organization. They were enumerated and defined in the proposed programme, which marked the scope and limits of the congress. The papers on the different topics which were the main theses of discussion were furnished and printed in advance, and the deliberations did not go outside of the proposed outline. There was no suggestion in any quarter of any attempt to invade the domain of policy or of administrative discipline, which each Government must reserve for itself. Whether the penal system in any country has phases which are open to criticism, or whether, irrespective of its general principle, there are faults in its practical application, were matters outside of the functions of the congress.

Even upon those questions which were treated as coming within the proper province of the congress it was recognized that the conclusions must be affected by the conditions existing within the different countries and that those conditions must be respected. This was true, for instance, as to the application of the contract system to prison labor, and as to the question whether prison labor should be directed to objects which would not involve competition with the free labor of surrounding communities. Among the questions considered were the character and requirements of legislation with reference to juvenile delinquents; the organization of instruction in penitentiary science; the principle and manner of suspending or discontinuing punishment involving conditional sentence; the treatment of incorrigible criminals; the method of dealing with intoxication and offenses growing out of it; the nature and variety of work to be adopted in prisons; the modes of assisting discharged prisoners and their families; the relation of charitable bodies; the correctional and reform systems; and the whole subject of preventive measures. Upon many of these questions the practical discussions with the information and comparisons which they elicited were of more value than the formal conclusions.

The declaration of the congress upon the subject of extradition may have special interest for the Department, and I append to this dispatch inclosure 1, the text of the question as submitted and a copy of the conclusions adopted, together with translations of the same. It will be seen that while the congress sanctions and supports the general principle of extradition, with all the reserve which each State must exercise for itself, it recognizes the difficulty of a uniform definition of crimes subject to extradition growing out of the differences of penal legislation; that, with a view to the advancement of a general agreement, it recommends the special enumeration in international conventions of offenses to which extradition will not be accorded, instead of the enumeration of those which are subject to extradition; and that it urges efforts towards a common agreement among writers on criminal law to the end of giving the same name and definition to violations of the law which should be subject to extradition.

The growing interest in questions of prison administration, science, and reform, will be indicated by certain comparative statistics of the several successive congresses

at London, Stockholm, Rome, and St. Petersburg, which, as taken from the bulletin of the congress, I inclose, marked 2.*

During the course of the congress Mr. Randall, as the expert delegate from the United States, took occasion to make some statements as to the progress of penitentiary and penal studies in our country, and, incidentally, as to its friendly attitude toward Russia. He expressed the sentiment of the United States towards the congress and its work, and explained why our prisons and correctional institutions were not represented in the exposition, which was chiefly due to the great distance. He remarked that the delegates of the United States were specially gratified that this congress had assembled at St. Petersburg, since the United States and Russia had always been bound together in the closest ties of friendship. Russia had attested her good will at a crisis when our national existence was at stake, and we could never forget her aid, for its memory was deeply engraved in our hearts. Mr. Randall added that the progress which Russia had made in penal science was known and appreciated in America. He referred briefly to the contributions which the United States had made to penitentiary reform and to the influential part which an American citizen, the lamented Dr. Wines, had borne in the original organization of the International Penitentiary Congress. He concluded by expressing the congratulations and good wishes of the American Government and people for the success of the congress. The paper of Mr. Randall, and especially the reference to the friendly relations of the United States and Russia, were received with emphatic marks of approval.

It was decided that the next congress should be held in Paris.

It only remains to add that the Russian Government and the municipalities of St. Petersburg and Moscow did everything possible for the comfort and pleasure of the delegates, and that their hospitality was as hearty as it was lavish and unstinted. By command of the Emperor the congress was entertained at a sumptuous dinner at the Winter Palace, and numerous other banquets testified to the cordial welcome and kindness of our Russian hosts.

I have, etc.,

CHAS. EMORY SMITH.

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* The inclosures, No. 1 and 2, appear in the body of this report.

APPENDIX.

EXCURSIONS AND BANQUETS, MEMORIALS OF HOWARD, CONFERENCE IN GLASGOW, THE NEW PRISON IN ST. PETERSBURG, AND INTERVIEW WITH MR. KOMORSKY, IN PARIS.

HER ROYAL HIGHNESS,

PRINCESS EUGÉNIE MAXIMILIANOVNA D'OLDENBURG.

EXCURSIONS AND BANQUETS.

BANQUET AT THE LAW SCHOOL.

The first banquet tendered by the Russian Government through Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg was in the great hall of the Law School at 6 p. m., June 18. The reunion was extremely brilliant throughout. There were present many distinguished ministers, councilors, senators, and generals of Russia, to show their respect for the object of the congress, and for the members. The dinner itself was excellent in all respects. The toasts were enthusiastically received. They were to the emperor, to Prince d'Oldenburg, and to the sovereigns and chiefs of state represented in the congress. Mr. Herbette presented one in the following terms:

In the name of the International Prison Commission and of our colleagues, the foreign members of the congress, permit me to drink to great and noble Russia, whose soul and life is in the emperor and the imperial family.

EXCURSION TO PETERHOF.

An excursion to Peterhof which will long remain in the memory of the members of the congress was tendered for the early evening of June 19th. At 6 o'clock p. m. two imperial steamers, occupied by delegates of all nations, left the dock near the Nicholas bridge for the grounds, parks, fountains, and palace of Peterhof, down the bay, on the left of and in sight of frowning Cronstadt. The early evening was as light as day, and late in the evening, into the night, there was that delightful twilight only known in the far north, and which can be realized only by experiencing. One could read or write by that light until 10 o'clock and after, and the twilight continued in this way until about 2 o'clock, when the brighter light in the east told of the coming day. Often in the still nights when no clouds or stars could be seen save the very largest, there would come unbidden those beautiful words so appropriate to the latitude:

"And there shall be no night there."

The ride down the bay was delightful, occupying over an hour. The old and new fortification at Cronstadt, and those on the right and left of that great central fortification, received interested attention from the excursionists, and the general verdict was that the ironclads that could go past the forts and live must be invulnerable indeed.

At the landing the guests found in waiting a long line of court carriages, peculiarly Russian. The horses were fine, large, and spirited. The first carriages were high, open, with cross seats richly upholstered and were occupied by the ladies. The rest had seats lengthwise on each side like two fine sofas, back to back, and were low, the feet coming only a short way from the ground. There were about 200 thus seated. The long file of carriages passed through the various portions of the great park on the drives which were shaded by great trees, and past the varied and beautiful fountains which were in full play, and which are the attraction of Peterhof. These fountains were many in form, and the immense flow of water was remarkable. It is said that they are not excelled in Europe. Among the places of interest visited was the unassuming two-story cottage once occupied by Peter the Great, where were seen many articles of furniture that were once used by the greatest monarch of Russia. The small cottage first occupied by Peter is near the cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul, and has another building over it to preserve it. It is "over the river," in old St. Petersburg, the more modern city being on the mainland. A short time was occupied in looking through the many, and often rich, rooms of the long and low palace, or "grand chateau." One high room was covered on each side with life-size portraits in oil of typical Russian beauties, mostly of young girls. There were many valuable paintings, several being portraits of Peter the Great, or illustrating his life. From there the visitors went to an ornamental building known as My Delight, where they were received by Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg, and were entertained by an informal and agreeable repast. After this the guests wandered through the great park, looking at the many flowing fountains, the statuary, and listening to the band which discoursed most charming music for them and the many visitors from near Peterhof, who were there in grand carriages and on foot to see so many strangers from abroad. The ticket sent to members for this excursion was quite simple, compared with the others they received. It read as follows:

IVe Congrès Pénitentiaire International.
Billet pour l'Excursion à Péterhof, jeudi le 7 (19) juin.
Rendezvous général; Embarcadère Quai Anglais, près du pont Nicolas, à 6 heures précises.
Costume: Habit noir, cravate blanche, sans décorations.

This card as well as conversation out of congress and addresses in it were in the official language of that body, the French, so that one heard constantly a language other than English or Russian, the French being generally spoken by educated Russians.

The visitors left Peterhof with regret. It was the most charming place they had seen in Russia. The great park, with its many winding drives through a native forest of great trees, the beautiful and wonderful fountains of endless variety and great power, the palace, the stat-

uary, the young cadets out on parade, the military music, all in the northern twilight, joined in making this place and surroundings unusually attractive. The royal carriages conveyed the guests of the nation to the landing, and soon the two steamers were moving with their consignment of various tongues and nations, and the hum of voices in all languages went on unceasingly during the return. It was about midnight when the boats touched the great granite docks built by Catherine II. It was still and clear, and beautiful as summer twilight in a southern land. Among the many courtesies so bountifully extended by Russia, there was none more informal or pleasing than the evening excursion to Peterhof.

BANQUET EXTENDED BY THE MUNICIPALITY OF ST. PETERSBURG.

The members received cards, one side in Russian and the reverse in French, which read as follows:

PERSONAL.

The municipal council of St. Petersburg requests you to please take part in a banquet which will be given Friday the 8 (20) instant, at 6:30 p. m., by the city in honor of its foreign guests, who have came to take part in the labors of the Fourth International Prison Congress.

Those who can not accept this invitation will please notify the office of the mayor.

The banquet was given in the great hall of the "Hotel de Ville," or city hall, which fronts on the Nevsky Prospect, the finest street of the capital. The hall had been beautifully decorated, and the flags of all nations represented hung from the walls. The excellent band of the firemen played during the banquet. A large number of high Russian officials were present. The menu and music cards at each table were works of art, engraved especially for the occasion. The music card was about 10 by 12 inches, printed in gilt and colors, having a view of the Hotel de Ville and an animated street scene, a female figure, wreaths, masks, a harp, music, etc., with the city arms. There were ten pieces on the programme from Mendelssohn, Glinka, Strobel, Bizet, Rubinstein, Strauss, Linke, Sêrow, Schubert, Gounod, Lanhard, H. Eilenberg, and R. Müller.

The menu card, about 8 by 12 inches, engraved for the banquet, would have honored in artistic merit the engravers of any country. The design was highly artistic and the printing was in five or six colors, soft and delicate in tone and harmonious throughout. A composite street scene representing several of the most interesting objects of the capital formed the upper part of the engraving. The Hotel de Ville, the leading statue of Catherine II, and the statue of Peter the Great were especially prominent. A scroll winding around the design and the menu part of the card carved in French the words "Fourth International Prison Congress," and on one side of the scroll the words in Russian "Without dinner there is no good company," and on the other side of the

scroll in French the words "Without bread, without wine, there is no good company." The toast card contained the following, which at the close of the banquet were presented by the mayor:

1. To his Majesty the Emperor and to the Imperial family.
2. To the sovereigns and chiefs of the states which are represented in the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg.
3. To his highness the honorary president of the congress and to her Imperial Highness Princess Eugenia d'Oldenburg.
4. To his excellency the minister of the interior and president of the Society for the Protection of Prisons.
5. To the foreign guests of the city of St. Petersburg, the members of the Fourth International Prison Congress.

The tables in the great hall formed a hollow square open at the lower end. At the upper end and fronting the hall, in the center, sat the mayor, and on his right and left were prominent Russian officials and foreign ambassadors, among them being the Hon. Charles Emory Smith, the minister of the United States and associate official delegate to the congress. The name of each guest was placed on the table by his seat, and the places were readily found. The entertainment was throughout one of the highest order, marked by the best social feeling on the part of all and by the most cordial attention of all Russians to their foreign guests. At this banquet as well as at the others in the capital, in Finland and in Moscow, the members received the most kindly attention from all. At the close of the banquet the following address was made by the mayor, M. Likhatchew:

GENTLEMEN: The last prison congress was held in Rome under the splendid skies of Italy, under the influence of the ever-vivifying rays of the sun. In the midst of a bountiful southern land you found at each step historic monuments and works of art accumulated for centuries in the Eternal City. To day, all is changed. You have assembled in the extreme north, in the midst of barren lands, in a city which has been built on a place washed by the waves of the sea when Rome was the center of the world, in a capital not yet two centuries old and which can not give you in the least the monumental richness and works of art which you have admired in Rome.

Here, gentlemen, you have found, instead of the warm days of Italy, our clear nights, sung by the poets. You can see at each step the traces of a persistent struggle against the rigors of nature pursued by the Russian people, who were inspired with the high thoughts of the illustrious founder of this city. The Russian people are doubtless still young in history, but strong by perseverance, generosity, abnegation, and zeal to go on in the way marked by their illustrious chiefs. In passing through our streets, in visiting our institutions, in inspecting our establishments for imprisonment, be pleased, gentlemen, to remember that you are in the youngest capital of Europe. If you are gratified with your entire sojourn here I recognize that it is so because of the coöperation of your countrymen.

Our great poet, Pouschkine, so venerated in his own country and so appreciated abroad, has said that St. Petersburg was "a window looking out upon Europe pierced by Peter the Great." Gentlemen, to-day this window has become a door, which we open with two large wings to our foreign guests. To your health, gentlemen, foreign guests, and members of the Fourth International Prison Congress.

In response toasts were offered by Mr. Braunbehrens, delegate from Prussia; Mr. Ciolfi, delegate from Italy, who spoke in the name of the

city of Rome; and Don Juan de Dios de la Rada y Delgado, delegate from Spain. These speakers spoke very warmly of the appreciation of the foreign members for the hospitality of which they were the object in Russia. They were applauded with the most animated acclamations. The banquet broke up about 9 o'clock p. m., all being highly gratified with the delightful entertainment.

DINNER TENDERED BY THE FOREIGN MEMBERS.

On the 21st day of June the foreign members of the Prison Congress gave a dinner to the commission of organization of the congress and of the exposition. The greatest cordiality existed during the repast, and numerous toasts were offered. Mr. Beltrani-Scalia offered a toast to His Majesty the Emperor and to Her Majesty the Empress, as well as to the august members of the imperial family. Mr. de Jagemann offered a toast to his highness Prince Alexander Pétrovitch d'Oldenburg, honorary president of the congress, and to his august wife, Princess Eugenia Maximilianova. Mr. Herbette pronounced the following discourse:

GENTLEMEN: I am sure I interpret the sentiment of all my foreign colleagues in presenting the health of the Russian organizers of the congress and the exposition. Our toast extends to his excellency the minister of the interior, whose kindness is so precious to us. Our sentiments at the same time go out to our eminent and cherished president, Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. It is difficult to speak briefly in eulogy of him. The committee of organization, over which he presides, should receive the warmest felicitation due to men whose high position and rare merits ally themselves so well to a most gracious courtesy. And what thanks are not due to the members of the commission of the exposition, who have made in so short a time, with so much art and care, a work so vast and so worthy of drawing public attention; taking all pains, to the great advantage of the exhibitors and strangers.

Finally, the secretary, and first of all the devoted Dr. Guillaume and his assistants, so earnest and amiable, have a right to our gratitude. In this country, that they claim is so cold and which we find is so warm, with all our heart we offer the health of our guests.

These toasts were received with the warmest acclamation.

Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy expressed in warm terms his acknowledgment for the words which had just been pronounced. He also extended his thanks to the commission of organization of the congress, the International Prison Commission, and the secretaries. He concluded by saying that he should always keep in memory this cordial festival, tendered by so many eminent gentlemen assembled in St. Petersburg. He was warmly applauded.

Mr. Darlot, of Paris, member of the general council of the Seine, then spoke as follows:

GENTLEMEN: It is a great honor and satisfaction for me to speak in this social festival, as councilor-general of the Seine, and as a member of the municipal council of Paris. By reason of my duties as president of the special commission for the reorganization of the prisons of the Seine, I have been appointed by the minister of the interior to take part in this work, so interesting by its objects, and so important in the results which will come from the International Prison Congress of 1890. I am

happy, in every way, to express my appreciation for the sympathetic and kind welcome which the representatives of the Seine have met in St. Petersburg.

If the next International Prison Congress does us the honor to meet in Paris, we shall endeavor, without making any attempt to surpass in grandeur, or even to equal the receptions of St. Petersburg, to assure the eminent gentlemen who shall be sent to us, from whatever country, a welcome marked by the most frank cordiality.

I address my thanks to the organizers of the congress, to the mayor of the municipality of St. Petersburg, and in the name of the city of Paris I salute from the bottom of my heart, St. Petersburg, in St. Petersburg.

Mr. Wraskoy, in the absence of Mr. Likhatchew, mayor of St. Petersburg, who was unfortunately prevented by official business from taking part in the banquet, thanked Mr. Darlot for the words he had addressed to the capital of Russia.

Mr. Pessina, professor of the University of Naples, offered a toast to the St. Petersburg Jurisprudence Society, and to the professors of the university of that city.

Before separation Mr. Wraskoy expressed his thanks to the organizers of the banquet, Mr. Krohne, of Germany, Mr. Bernabo-Silorata, of Italy, and Mr. Bournat, of France.

THE WINTER PALACE BANQUET.

In the Winter Palace on the 22d day of June there was a grand dinner for the members of the International Prison Congress, in Nicholas Hall. Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg presided, representing in fact the Emperor at this as in other banquets, and at the sessions of the congress. This banquet and that at St. Petersburg and in the Law School and the excursion to Moscow were really courtesies extended by the Russian Government to their foreign guests. If the reader would know more regarding the interior as well as the exterior of the great Winter Palace where the banquet was held, he will find an illustrated description in Harper's Magazine for July, 1889. The following card printed on large white paper was received by each member:

> By order of his majesty the Emperor, the grand marshal of the court has the honor to inform Mr. ——— ——— that he is invited to the dinner at the Winter Palace, Sunday June 10 (22), at 6 o'clock.
>
> Black coat, white cravat, decorations.
>
> Enter at the ambassadors stairway on the Neva side.
>
> St. Petersburg, June, 1890.

The menu and music cards were headed by the Russian arms in gilt relief. There were two bands which played alternately during the banquet; one was the band of the eighty-fifth and the other of the eighty-sixth regiment. The repertory was as follows:

The Eighty-fifth Regiment.

1. Potpourri de l'opera Roméo et Juliette, Gounod.
2. Fantaisie de l'opera La vie pour le Tzar, Glinka.
3. Potpourri du ballet La Fille des Neiges, Minkus.
4. Air de l'opera Le Troubadour, Verdi.
5. La Retraite, Kitzer.

The Eighty-sixth Regiment.

1. Ouvre de l'opera Yelva, Réissiger.
2. Le Désir, Romance, Bach.
3. Dolores Valse, Waldteufel.
4. Le Rêve Délicieux, Gavotte. Sabattelli.
5. Potpourri, Métamorphoses Musicales, Schreiner.

The toasts were as follows:

1. To the sovereigns and chiefs of the states represented in the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg.

2. To His Imperial Majesty the Emperor and to the imperial family.

3. To his highness the honorary president of the congress and to her imperial highness Princess Eugenia d'Oldenburg.

4. To the presidents, vice-presidents, delegates, and members of the congress.

The Austrian ambassador sat at the right of Princess d'Oldenburg, and the Countess Bertiandos at the left of Prince d'Oldenburg. The minister of the interior sat opposite the prince, and Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy opposite the princess. Near them were the ambassadors of France, Italy, Turkey, Spain, Bavaria, Netherlands, Denmark, Japan, Belgium, Portugal, the United States, Servia, Greece, and chargés d'affaires of Germany, Sweden and Norway. The minister of public instruction, the minister of finance, the minister of ways and communications, and the procurer-general of the Holy Synod were also present as well as members of the council of the empire, senators, and generals. The playing of the two military orchestras was remarkable in its superior and brilliant execution. Prince d'Oldenburg, in the name of the Emperor, presented the toast to the sovereigns and chiefs of the states represented in the Congress of St. Petersburg. Mr. Beltrani-Scalia presented the toast to the Emperor and the imperial family. Mr. Herbette presented the toast to the Prince and Princess d'Oldenburg, and the prince gave the toast to the presidents, vice-presidents, delegates, and members of the congress.

There were probably 400 to 500 present. Many of the European delegates and distinguished Russians wore brilliant military and civil decorations, some bearing a single decoration of gold and diamonds, while others had a number about the neck and across the breast. While such things did not incite the envy of one who has the simpler and better ways of republicanism, they are mentioned here, as wearing them was an honor paid by distinguished foreigners to the members of the International Prison Congress. The vast Nicholas Hall, where the banquet was held, the great and brilliant St. George's Hall, the renowned Ambassador's Stairway, the decorations of the palace, the paintings and statuary in this and the adjoining hermitage, the army of well-trained and gilded attendants in livery, the glitter of untold diamonds, pearls, and rare gems on the persons of princesses and countesses, the pomp and ceremony are all necessary belongings to royalty, but not to our simple republican ways in the land of the people. But it was gratifying to the members to know that the very best that Russia had in dis-

tinguished gentlemen and ladies, representatives of the court, the universities, the army, the navy, and civil life were brought out without limit to do honor to the Prison Congress and to show the interest Russia had in the work begun by Howard in that land many years ago.

A RIVER EXCURSION.

The committee of the exposition extended to the foreign delegates a charming entertainment on the evening of June 22. They set out at 9:30 o'clock from the admiralty dock upon two steamboats of the river service. There was a military orchestra on each steamer. The night was one of those beautiful twilight nights of the northern latitude. The boats passed up the Neva and then descended to the Felician restaurant, where supper had been prepared. In the first story of the restaurant there was found a choir of Bohemian men and women, who before the supper gave some of their original songs. At the close of the supper some toasts were presented. Mr. Komorsky, the commissary general of the exposition, toasted the health of the foreign guests. Mr. Herbette and Mr. Rada successively expressed in warm terms the appreciation of the foreign delegates for their reception and for the service which the exposition had rendered to the cause of prison science.

Dr. Guillaume, addressing himself to Count Sollohub, commissary of the exposition, recalled the memory of his father, Count Vladimir, one of the first promoters of the work of the International Prison Congress when he was associated with Dr. Wines, of America.

Count Sollohub presented a toast to the families of the delegates present and spoke upon the importance of the international reunions for the advancement of science, and presented a toast to all the delegates. After some words by Mr. Salomon the Bohemian choir reentered the hall, and the festival was prolonged far into the night by music and social conversation.

FINAL ST. PETERSBURG BANQUET AND FELICITATION.

At two o'clock in the afternoon, June 24, in the grand hall of Landed Credit, a banquet was tendered by the commission of organization of the Fourth International Prison Congress. This reunion brilliantly closed the series of festivals given in St. Petersburg in honor of the congress. The banquet was presided over by Prince d'Oldenburg, who had upon his left his excellency Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. In front of the prince was the minister of the interior, on whose right was Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, and on his left Mr. Herbette. The ambassadors of France, Italy, and Turkey were also present. Most of the ministers accredited to the imperial court and chargés d' affaires of foreign powers assisted at the banquet. Many prominent Russians honored the festival by their presence, and an orchestra played during the repast.

Prince d'Oldenburg presented a toast to his majesty the Emperor and

the Empress. Mr. Wraskoy tendered a toast to the sovereigns and chiefs of states represented in the congress, and then to the honorary president of the congress and to Princess d'Oldenburg. After this Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy toasted the delegates and members of the congress. He said:

I do not intend to make a speech. I will not recall our completed work nor our session which has just closed. But if there is a last memory to call up, it is of these cordial relations which have not ceased to exist among us, and which continue, I am convinced, to this reunion. I drink to these good relations and to the health of you all, my cherished colleagues, delegates, and members of the International Prison Congress.

Immediately after this Mr. Wraskoy toasted the minister of the interior, saying that by his aid, so powerful, he has greatly assisted the commission of organization in filling its task in a manner which had merited general approbation.

His excellency Mr. Dournovo, minister of the interior, tendered a toast to the delegates, and recalled the words he had said on their arrival in St. Petersburg, and wished them a happy return to their respective countries. These different toasts were received with general applause.

Mr. Herbette, chairman of the French delegation, spoke in warm terms of the appreciation by the foreign delegates of the welcome they had received. He tendered a toast to the organizers of the congress and the exposition, to Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy and the minister of the interior. He desired also to express his gratitude to the honorary president of the congress, and in the name of the foreign members he was happy to be able to present a toast to his majesty the Emperor. Mr. Herbette was greatly applauded. Mr. Herbette then, in the name of the French delegation, presented to Mr. Wraskoy a bronze medal specially struck off in commemoration of the congress.

Mr. Wraskoy responded, thanking Mr. Herbette, and expressed his appreciation of the honor conferred on the commission of organization by the attendance at the banquet of the foreign ambassadors and other chiefs of foreign missions, and added that he was happy to have the honor to offer a toast to the health of the ambassadors and other foreign representatives.

His excellency, Count de Wolkenstein-Trostburg, the dean of the diplomatic corps, responded, speaking in most sympathetic terms of the services rendered to the congress by Mr. Wraskoy. Some other toasts were presented, when Mr. Wraskoy said that it was due that he should render homage to the highly esteemed secretary of the congress, Dr. Guillaume. Dr. Guillaume returned cordially his thanks for the flattering distinction given him, for which, as a tribute to his country, he was proud; that in the study of these international questions he only desired the modest rôle of worker. He recalled the fact that he had enjoyed the rare honor of being secretary-general of the Prison Congress for

more than 20 years, and had labored under the orders of such chiefs as Mr. Almquist, Mr. Beltrani-Scalia, and Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy. He had witnessed the inauguration of the congress and its development. The congress has now attained the maturity of manhood and extends to the Governments the guaranty that the end it pursues is the protection of society. If the duties of secretary have been well discharged, the credit is also due to his competent assistants.

In conclusion, the secretary-general recalled the interest which the ladies had exhibited in the preparatory works, presenting able reports and assisting in the sessions of the congress. He offered a toast to the health of these ladies, and at the same time directed his attention to Prince d'Oldenburg, the honorary president, to express the sentiments relative, especially to his august wife, Princess d'Oldenburg.

The mayor of St. Petersburg then spoke as follows:

In parting from you to-day permit me to express again my grateful recognition as I did on your arrival. In repeating in the name of the municipal council my gratitude to all who have taken part in the labors of the congress, which will without doubt bear fruit, I must thank the foreign members of the congress who have left a delicate souvenir of their sojourn in St. Petersburg by a work of charity. I speak of a sum of money which was sent to me yesterday by some representatives of our foreign guests for the poor of St. Petersburg. It is with profound gratitude that I accept this sum, which I do not wish to dispose of without informing you in what way I propose to employ it. As in all great cities, St. Petersburg has also the poor, who are dependent on public charity. But among these indigent persons are those who are sick, incapable of work, who are in the hospitals, without resources to support their families, or to return to the villages or country which they left to seek work in the capital. Then there are the convalescents, who are yet too feeble to return to their work.

To aid these unfortunates and their families, as well as to provide for the orphans left without resources by their parents, who have died in the hospitals, there exist in St. Petersburg five city hospitals and some benevolent societies. The most ancient of these societies, that of the hospital of d'Oboukhow, has the honor to be under the protection of Her Majesty the Empress, and to possess already a capital of nearly half a million of francs. The youngest of these societies, organized only a few months ago, and naturally the poorest, is the society founded to assist sick women taken care of at the special hospital of Kalinkine.

If you say that in this hospital are received those women who have the misfortune to lead the kind of life that is led in Paris at the hospital of St. Lazare; in Lyons at the hospital of Antiquaille; in Berlin at the hospital of Charity; at Auvers at the hospital of St. Elizabeth, you will certainly agree that of all the poor of St. Petersburg the most worthy of compassion are those who ask not only material but also moral aid, the women and children cared for in the hospital of Kalinkine. If I add that the benevolent society of this hospital, newly organized, has had the honor to be graciously admitted to the high protection of Her Imperial Highness Princess Eugenia d'Oldenburg, the wife of our honorary president, you will comprehend, gentlemen, why I conceived the idea of transmitting to that society the sum of money intrusted to me.

This money, converted to public funds, will be set apart as a special gift "from the foreign members of the Fourth International Prison Congress," at the headquarters of this society. The interest alone will be annually expended to aid the most unfortunate. I dare hope, gentlemen, that you will approve of this disposition I have thought to give to your offering. In presenting to you again, gentlemen, the ac-

knowledgments of the municipal council permit me to express the hope that you will convey from St. Petersburg as agreeable a memory of your sojourn here as that you have left us of yourselves. Gentlemen, I do not say adieu. I only say, "Au revoir."

Finally, with the concurrence of the honorary president, a toast was offered by Mr. Wraskoy to the members of the committee of the exposition and to the secretaries who had so worthily discharged their difficult duties.

Before separation all those present, His Highness at the head, affixed their signatures to a prepared list in order to have it photographed and distributed to the members of the congress as a souvenir.

In the course of the dinner there had been distributed to the members silver medals bearing the following inscription: "Fourth International Prison Congress, St. Petersburg, 1890," and on the reverse: "Friendly souvenir from the commission of organization." The name of each member was engraved on the medal presented to him.

At the time when the members were signing the list spoken of Mr. Wraskoy announced that Prince d'Oldenburg had the happiness to receive from His Majesty the Emperor a telegram in the following terms:

The Empress and myself sincerely thank the congress for the sentiments expressed towards ourselves. I hope that the deliberations of the congress will be productive of good results for the common cause, and that all members will preserve a pleasant memory of their sojourn in Russia.

ALEXANDER.

The reading of this telegram was loudly applauded. The band played the national hymn, and the audience, moved by this mark of Imperial good will, began to separate, carrying with them pleasing memories of courtesies extended and of acquaintances renewed and made, and a high appreciation of the social features of the Fourth Congress.

EXCURSION TO FINLAND.

The members of the congress were informed that the programme of the excursion to Finland would be as follows:

Depart from St. Petersburg Tuesday, June 24, at 10 o'clock p. m., by steamboats at the Neva dock, No. 13. Arrive at Viborg, June 25 at 7:30 a. m.; visit the Falls of Imatra, the Saima Lake, and from there, by steamboats, to Williamstrand. Arriving at Helsingfors June 26, at 9 a. m., visit the central prison of Sœrnæs, the museums, libraries, etc. Those persons who take part in the excursion to Moscow could leave Helsingfors by night train for St. Petersburg to take the express train at the Nicholas depot Saturday, June 28, at 8 a. m. In conformity to this programme the members of the congress left St. Petersburg Tuesday, June 24, at 10 o'clock in the evening, at that hour the light being almost that of daytime. Two steamboats were necessary to carry the members. The decks were decorated with the flags of the nations repre-

sented. As the trim-built, well-proportioned steamers passed down the Neva out into the wider bay and past the Cronstadt and the old high and the new low fortifications, which frowned on foes and smiled on friends, the great guns boomed a salute to those whose mission was not war but peace, good will, charity, and kindness to friend and foe, to the best of earth, and to those whose worst enemies are themselves. Long into the night the members were on deck in friendly converse, in which the French, German, Russian, and the English language could be heard. The Society of Tourists of Finland presented to each a Guide to Finland, illustrated by photographs, containing a fine colored map. On the first page was printed the words, "Homage of the Society of Tourists of Finland to the Members of the Prison Congress of St. Petersburg in St. Petersburg, for their Excursion to Finland."

This little work was by Auguste Ramsay, PH. D., and treated of the Grand Duchy of Finland, and marked out several routes as follows:

1. From St. Petersburg to Helsingfors.
2. Helsingfors.
3. From Stockholm to Helsingfors.
4. Viborg, Imatra, Williamstrand.
5. Williamstrand, Nyslatt, and Punkaharju.

While the two royal steamers are pushing their way northward over the quiet sea and through the twilight night, it may be opportune to say a few words of the interesting country most of the members are visiting for the first time.

Finland is situated between the sixtieth and seventieth degrees of north latitude and the twentieth and thirty-second degrees of longitude east of Greenwich. It is about two-thirds the size of France; but only a small part of this land can be cultivated. The lakes occupy 12, the marshes 20, and the forests and rocks 60 per cent. Compared with other countries of the same latitude, the climate is mild. January is the coldest month, and sometimes the thermometer is 30° below zero. The clear summer nights make a deep impression on strangers. In Lapland, at the time of the summer solstice, the sun does not descend below the horizon. Even in the south of Finland at this time of the year there is no night. Between the setting and rising of the sun, that is, in July, between 9 p. m. and 3 a. m., there reigns a clear twilight, a light without shade and with a strange effect. The population is 2,300,000. The language is Swede and Finn. The Swedes are about 14 per cent. and the Finns about 85 per cent. of the population. About 5,000 have the Russian for their maternal language. The religion is Lutheran. There are nearly 41,500 members of the Greek and about 2,300 of the Catholic Church.

Finland is an independent government attached to Russia. It has its own legislature, making its own laws, subject to the approval of the Emperor. At the time of the excursion, Finland had its own monetary, military, and postal system. Since then the postal system has been in-

corporated with that of Russia, greatly to the alarm of the people of Finland. The present order of things has existed since Alexander I occupied the country. He then confirmed their constitution and religion. The following is the declaration of the Emperor at the opening of the Diet, March 15 (27), 1809, which forms the Magna Charta of that people:

> Providence having placed us in possession of the Grand Duchy of Finland, we have desired by the present act to confirm and ratify the religion and fundamental laws of the land as well as the privileges and rights which each class in the said Grand Duchy, in particular, and all the inhabitants in general, be their position high or low, have hitherto enjoyed according to the constitution. We promise to maintain all these benefits and laws firm and unshaken in their full force.

Under this compact the Emperor received the title of Grand Duke of Finland and the homage of the estates which took the oath of fealty to the new sovereign; and the herald announced, "Long live Alexander I, Emperor of all Russia and Grand Duke of Finland." At the conclusion the Emperor addressed the estates in the French language, reaffirming the compact made and calling it an act of union. The first material encroachment on this has been the adoption of the postal system; and the people have feared that this was a prelude for Russianizing Finland entirely. The later addresses of Alexander II to the Diet fuliy confirmed the acts of his predecessor.

The people of Finland are intelligent, hardy, and comparatively poor, with a great love of liberty, which they have long enjoyed to a great extent and to which they tenaciously cling. In this love of liberty and independence they very naturally have the sympathy of Americans, who can not but hope that their institutions of civil and religious liberty may be maintained. The materials at hand and the memory of that visit would furnish sufficient data for a volume on the history, manners, customs, and political situation of that interesting people, and the subject is reluctantly discontinued.

The excursionists arrived at Viborg at 7:30 a. m. The first object which arrested attention was the large and ancient castle of Viborg, a very interesting historical monument which sustained many sieges centuries ago. At Viborg the interior canal connects with the chain of lakes. The travelers disembarked from the steamers *Abo* and *Onlu* and went immediately to the Garden of St. Anne, where an excellent breakfast was in waiting. The band of the Eighth battalion played national airs and Mr. Braunbehrens expressed the thanks of the delegates for their cordial reception by the people of Finland. Mr. Herbette joined in this expression of gratitude, and presented a toast to General Grippenberg, commander of the garrison, and to the representatives of the civil authorities. General Grippenberg responded, expressing his pleasure in meeting the members of the International Prison Congress in Finland.

The day was rainy, which interfered with observations in this interesting locality. Two other steamers were here taken which traverse

the grand and interesting canal of Saima, a canal which does honor to the people of Finland and to the engineers who planned and constructed it. Twelve years were occupied in building it and it was completed in 1856. Prison labor was considerably used in the work. There were numerous locks which interested the excursionists. The canal where narrow was constructed with stone on the sides, but often was wide, opening into small or large lakes, nearly all of which had low shores and were often marshy. The scenery was monotonous as in Northern Russia and in extreme Northern Germany.

The forests are composed almost exclusively of white birch and pine, both kinds being small. Large trees were seldom seen. At Rättigärvi the steamers were left and carriages taken for a ride of several hours to the falls or rapids of Imatra, the most interesting object to see on this inland excursion. The rapids are formed by the river Vuoxen, the outlet of the vast system of the inland lakes of Finland, a powerful river which has worn its way through rocky hills forming these rapids and then passes into lake Ladoga. The descent in about one-fourth of a mile is about 60 feet. The huge rocks project from the surface of the great flood and high and rough rocks line the shores. The rapids are apparently about 200 feet wide at the point where generally visited by tourists near the great hotel for excursionists. The impression on the spectator as he stands by this great mass of water moving down its rocky bed with its thundering echoes is in many respects greater than at Niagara. As an exhibition of power the rush and downward sweep of this immense mass of water broken into irregular currents and now and then into white foam, is most impressive and astonishing. The travelers for a long time stood by the banks or wandered up and down on the rocky shore, deeply gratified by the view of the wonderful falls of Imatra. An excellent repast was in readiness in the large hotel. Lieutenant-General Alftan, vice president of the Senate of Finland, extended a welcome to the delegates and especially to the ladies and expressed the hope that all would take with them the most pleasant memory of their visit to the falls of Imatra. Mr. Stoïanovsky, member of the council of the Empire, added some pleasing words addressed to the guests of Finland, whom they were so well pleased to meet. Mr. Herbette, in behalf of the delegates, extended most cordial thanks for the very friendly reception and especially expressed his gratitude to Senators Michelin and Montgomery, who had been our voluntary and amiable guides to that country.

Count Sollohub and Mr. Foïnitsky also made some remarks. After these proceedings the members reëntered the carriages, which took them to the steamers on lake Saima. It was then about sunset and it was evening soon after the steamers were under way. The rain had ceased and the travelers remained on deck long into the night, as they sailed on through this large lake sprinkled with many islands covered

with trees, with the main shores bordered with pine and white birch. Never before probably had this northern land been so invaded by such an international company that came with no war nor battle sound. There was not only cordial conversation between different nationalities and languages, but there were recitations and songs in Spanish, Italian, French, and Swedish, rendered in a manner that would have done credit to professionals on the stage. Madame Brunot, of Paris, one of the ladies present, recited the following, which was enthusiastically applauded:

To Russia, one day, God said, in His kindness,
"Which of my favors excites thy pride?
Is it thy land which envelops the earth,
Which, not content with lakes, holds an entire sea,
Which the stars always see under them
When thy world rolls on in the infinite heavens?
Is it thy St. Petersburg? Thy ancient Moscow?
Thy mines of Oural, or thy walls of Bakou?
Thy wheat of Odessa, which fills the granaries of the world?
Thy roads of Annenkow tracing the maps?
Is it thy great army, at heart so generous,
And which inspires happiness and joy in its friends,
To its enemies the fear of its eagle,
The strongest respect and the confidence of the feeble?
Is it thy grand life and thy brilliant court;
Thy palaces, thy nobility? And to see each day
The Escurial deserted and Versailles solitary,
When, with its thousand lights, Peterhof is brilliant?"
At the words Russia was thrilled,
Moving the earth with a long rumbling,
And from the seas of Japan to the lakes of Finland
This cry went up to God in response,
"I am proud to see my scepter carried
By honor, virtue, strength, and kindness."

At 1 o'clock in the morning the steamer arrived at Williamstrand. The cars were waiting, and by 9:30 a. m. Helsingfors, the capital of Finland, was reached. At 11 a. m. two steamers took the delegates to the central prison, Soernaes, which was visited throughout. This prison is one of the new ones constructed under Russian authority, and in its plan and purposes is typical of modern Russian construction. Though smaller, it is in many respects similar to the great prison in St. Petersburg known as the New or Viborg prison. This receives prisoners condemned to hard labor for the term of 1 month to 5 years. At that time there were 395 male prisoners. The maximum number for the full capacity would be 440. There were 45 employés. The prison was inaugurated in 1881. It is organized after the progressive system under the direction of Dr. Grotenfelt, an authority well known among prison specialists. It is expected that by the coming January, in accordance with the code of Finland, conditional liberations will be in part adopted.

The prison reflects great honor not only on Finland, but on Russia as well, as it is a part of the Russian advance movement in prison reform. This prison was finished in 1881, at a cost of about $434,116. The cells are large and well lighted and ventilated. The corridors are roomy and light, and an air of cleanliness and purity prevailed. All the appointments for washing, bathing, and cooking seemed to be on the most approved plans.

The ground plan and sectional views of the prison are given on page 242.

After visiting the prison the members were conveyed in carriages to the Toeloe park, where an excellent repast was waiting. At the suggestion of Mr. Trübner and Mr. Wraskoy a collection was taken for the committee of patronage of discharged prisoners. Madame Brunot and Countess Chorinski amiably took it upon themselves to make the collection, which realized about $180, which was divided equally between two committees of patronage, one directed by the Baroness Wrède and the other by Mr. Trübner. The Countess Chorinski and Madam Brunot were toasted. Dr. Guillaume also toasted Dr. Grotenfelt, who assisted at the banquet notwithstanding the condition of his health.

The members of the congress had been invited to a dinner to be given by the city government of Helsingfors.

The elegant invitation cards, printed in French, with the city coat of arms, read as follows:

The city of Helsingfors has the honor to invite Mr. ——— ——— to a dinner tendered to the members of the Fourth International Prison Congress at Helsingfors, at the hotel of the Society, on Thursday, June 26, 1890, at 6 o'clock in the evening.

Present this card at the entrance S. V. P.

The toasts were—

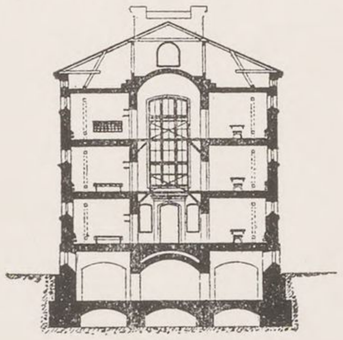
1. To his majesty the Emperor and Grand Duke. 2. To the sovereigns and chiefs of state of foreign nations represented here. 3. To the members of the prison congress.

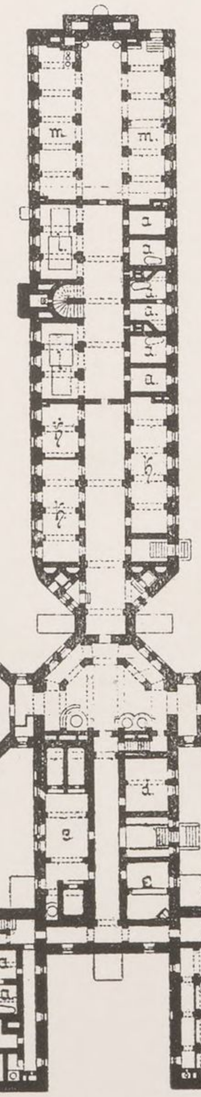
The repertory of the band was composed of 10 pieces. The dinner was in the grand hall of the hotel "Society." It was ornamented with much taste and brilliantly lighted. There were about 350 persons present. In the absence of the governor general, his assistant, Baron and General Forselles presided. On his right was the president of the congress, his excellency Mr. Wraskoy, and on his left was his excellency Mr. Stoïanovsky, member of the council of the empire and president of the Society of Jurisprudence of St. Petersburg. There were present a great number of the senators of Finland and other high dignitaries. General Forselles toasted the Emperor, and the toast was received with great applause, and the orchestra played the national hymn. Mr. Runeberg toasted the sovereigns and chiefs of the states represented. Senator Michelin welcomed the members of the congress and spoke of the happy coincidence of their arrival on the day when the new code of Finland

Pl. Ib.

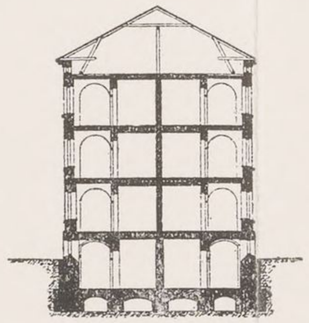
MAISON CENTRALE DE HELSINGFORS.

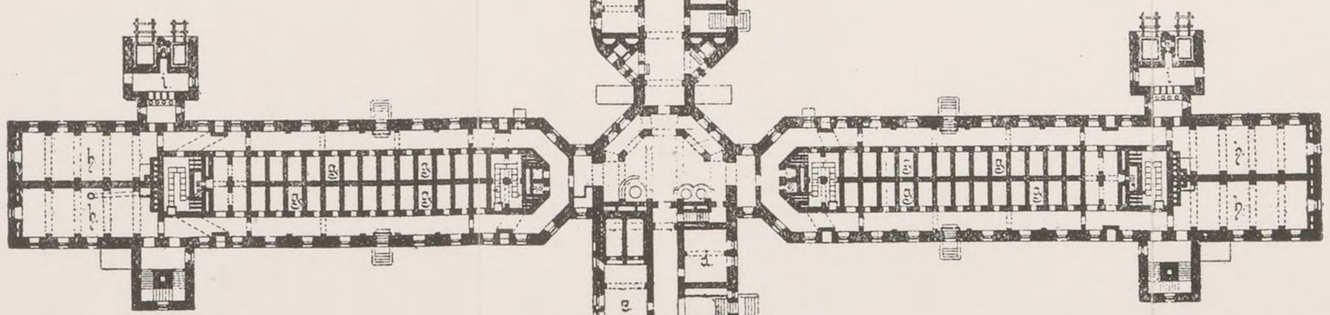
Coupe (transversale) de l'aile de cellules de jour





Coupe (transversale) d'une aile de cellules de nuit.

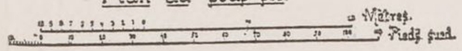




a. Bains
b. Caves.
c. Grénier
d. Office.
e. Boulangerie.
f. Cuisine.

g. Cellules de nuit
h. Atélier
i. Cabinet d'aisance.
k. Salle à manger.
l. Chaudière.
m. Dortoir.

Plan du sous-sol.



CENTRAL PRISON OF HELSINGFORS, FINLAND.

came into operation. This new code, he said, was formed on the most recent theories in prison science and witnessed the progress of this branch of science in Finland. Finland, he continued, was doubly happy to meet in Helsingfors so many illustrious representatives of prison science. The senator completed his discourse by toasting in the warmest terms the delegates and members of the congress. This toast was received with most lively applause.

Mr. Wraskoy expressed his thanks for the welcome received and for the generous hospitality of the city of Helsingfors. In the meantime, he did not know how to express his pleasure as a Russian in seeing the cities rival each other in extending welcome to their foreign guests. It was so lately in St. Petersburg. It was yesterday the same in Viborg, and at Imatra, and to-day it is so in Helsingfors. To-morrow it will doubtless be the same in Moscow. In conclusion, he toasted the city of Helsingfors.

Don Juan de la Rada expressed his gratitude for the welcome and hospitality of which the members have been the object since they entered Russia, and in moving words tendered a toast to his majesty the Emperor of Russia.

Mr. Leitmaier, in an address in German, expressed his admiration for the beautiful spectacles of nature which he had witnessed since his entrance into Finland, mentioning some of the pictures most pleasing to him, and concluded by a toast to the governor general, to the city of Helsingfors, to her representatives, and to the chief placed at their head, Mr. Runeberg, son of the great poet of Finland. Mr. Giacone, in the name of the press, toasted the Prison Congress, and Mr. Foïnitsky toasted Dr. Guillaume, the secretary general.

Dr. Guillaume responded to the toast in his honor. He spoke of the development which educational prison régime had undergone, which was cellular at first, then Auburn, and finally progressive, commencing by isolation and ending by work in common and liberation. The education of the people is made in the same manner. Each native is at first isolated, but in the course of time they go out of this cellular stage to a life in common, where they can unite their efforts in preparing humanity for greater happiness and to assure universal peace. He compared the scenery of Finland with that of Switzerland, and concluded by drinking to the memory of the great poet Runeberg.

Mr. Komarow, in the name of his colleagues of the Russian diplomatic corps, spoke of his pleasure in being one of the secretaries of the congress, where he had the pleasure of meeting so many eminent gentlemen. He saw in their modest coöperation the symbol of the rôle which belongs to diplomacy in service of this kind. It is for savants, jurists, managers of special duties, to be originators in the great questions of humanity. It is for diplomacy to sustain them as much as possible.

Dr. Riggenbach, chaplain of the penitentiary of Bale, improvised the following verses in German:

THE SWITZER'S GREETING TO FINLAND.

Suomi, land of the thousand seas,
With peaceful plains girt round with forests,
In thee at once must surely disappear
The last trace of the Switzer's homesickness.
The wonderful charm of the country
Thrills me with the ecstasy of home,
And, though the sun veils himself,
I hail thee, northern Switzerland!
I greet thee, noble Finland,
Thou, beautiful fair northern maid;
I salute thee with sincerest feeling;
May God preserve thee from all harm.

At the conclusion of the dinner the members listened to a concert in the park, where the ladies of highest rank in Finland served tea to the members.

The train left at 11 p. m., bearing away the excursionists, and the last sounds they heard were the adieus of their new friends and the music of the band which played in their honor that most beautiful and grand production, the Russian national hymn.

EXCURSION TO MOSCOW.

The preparations for this excursion were ample for the convenience and pleasure of all. A printed programme showing what was to be done each day, including the return, and a special time-table giving the names of each station where the train would stop, the time of detention, and where meals would be had, was handed to each member. The train was a special one, and each delegate had his compartment awarded him for going and returning. Personal attention was given in this to insure each having in his compartment a gentleman with him who would be acceptable. The cars were large and the apartments roomy, with comfortable sleeping arrangements. For this long ride of 500 miles everything was well planned and admirably executed. The road runs almost in an air line and is known as the Nicholas road. It is said that when the Emperor was asked on what line it should be run he took a map and drew a straight line from Moscow to St. Petersburg and said, "On that line." The stations at which the train was to stop were Lubane, Wischera, Okulowka, Onglowka, Bologoe, Spirowo, Twer, Kline, and Moscow.

The train left the Nicholas depot at St. Petersburg, June 28, at 8 a. m., and arrived in Moscow at 10.45 p. m., where a member of the city council of Moscow was in waiting and indicated to the members of the congress the hotels to which they were assigned and placed carriages subject to their order during their sojourn in that city. From the depot

it was about half an hour's ride through this ancient and peculiarly oriental city to the several hotels, which were mostly near the Kremlin and outside the walls of the old city. The Hotel Continental, to which many were assigned, had been opened only about one year, and reminds one of the hotels of western Europe. Lodging and meals at the hotels were free, as were the carriages, the ride on the railroad, and all the excursions.

The next morning being Sunday many members attended the Greek service in the different cathedrals. The new and beautiful cathedral, or Church of the Savior, which is outside the Kremlin, was visited by many, who were deeply impressed by the beauty and grandeur of the building, with the richness of the interior, and with the Greek service so grand and impressive with many voices and no instrument. At 1:30 p. m. the members went in a body to call on Prince Vladimir Galitsyne, the governor general of Moscow.

The programme of the day included the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the city asylum of Roukavischnikow. This asylum is under the control of the city of Moscow and contained 110 young prisoners and 10 accused, the latter being in a separate building. The prisoners are in four divisions. The first comprises those who have committed offenses in consequence of abandonment by their parents and those who are dependent, not criminal, by such abandonment. The second are those who are mild in character, ready to do good or evil according to the influence exerted on them. The third are those who are corrupt or perverse, but obedient under fear of punishment. The fourth comprehends those whose perversity requires special supervision. The prisoners learn different trades. In the choice of occupation the physician is consulted, and the education, capacity, and wishes of the children are considered. They have had also classes for religious education, reading, writing, and arithmetic. Designing, singing, and music are also taught. The children who go out from the asylum receive assistance in money for their equipment and tools. The asylum procures for each discharged child a place to work, supervises it, goes to its aid if unfortunate, and, if its conduct is good for three years after discharge, it receives further aid in money.

The institution was established in 1864. It owes its existence to the honorable president of the Society for the Circulation of Useful Books, which society, by her request, founded the asylum. Its history is interesting and would be given here did space permit. Its objects and general plan are so intelligent and its success so manifest that the celebration of its 25th year seemed highly appropriate, and to witness that celebration was the principal object of the excursion. The members were taken in carriages from their hotels to the asylum, the distance being too great for walking.

The front of the building was gaily decorated with flags. The members and others first met in the chapel at 2 o'clock where a Greek

service was held, commencing with the Te Deum, which was celebrated by his eminence Mgr. Ioaunice, the Metropolitan of Moscow. Assisting in the Te Deum were their excellencies Prince Galitsyne, governor-general, aid-de-camp of General Kostanda, and chief of the military conscription; Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, Kapoustine, curator of the University of Dorpat, Prince Obolensky as governor, Mouraview, prosecutor to the court in Moscow, etc., other notables of Moscow, and the delegates of the Prison Congress present. At the close of the religious services Mgr. Ioaunice addressed the audience on the subject of establishments for the reformation of vicious children, in a Christian point of view. After the Te Deum, prayers were said for their imperial majesties, for Mgr. the Grand Duke Césarevitch, the holy synod and Mgr. the Metropolitan, and also for the repose of the soul of the deceased Nicholas Roukavischnikow, the first director of the asylum which bears his name. The Metropolitan having left the asylum the rest of the audience went to the large hall for the celebration of the jubilee. The hall was ornamented with flags and escutcheons of all nations represented in the congress.

Upon the platform were his excellency Galkine-Wraskoy, who presided, Prince Galitsyne, General Kostanda, Mme. Roukavischnikow and Mr. Roukavischnikow, Aléxeiew, mayor of the city, Mouraview and Lavrow, president of the court of the district.

Mr. Roukavischnikow, the present superintendent, welcomed the visitors and expressed his high gratification at their attendance. In celebrating the 25th anniversary of this institution he referred to its past and remarked that if at the beginning its resources were meager, to day it is one of the most important in the Empire. If, the speaker said, such were the results, the honor should reflect on his brother Nicholas, whose love and devotion for unfortunate children was very great. The honor also belongs to the municipal council of Moscow, which has always come to their aid in providing necessary resources. A quarter of a century has passed, and in celebrating this anniversary the present superintendent finds new strength to continue the work to which his brother was so devoted.

The president of the reunion, Mr. Wraskoy, said he had no address to make and would not occupy the time of others, but he desired to remind them of the school of Madam Strékalow, whose charity is so generally recognized and who conceived the idea of converting her school into a correctional institution. It is to do justice that her name is mentioned here. He who came to her aid was Mr. Kapoustine, who now is the superintendent of the school of Dorpat. Both to whom he referred had taken inspiration from Nicholas Roukavischnikow, who had devoted himself to this work. His brother, Constantine, who has accepted the position, will be a worthy successor. In conclusion Mr. Wraskoy, in behalf of His Majesty the Emperor, expressed his gratitude to the

present superintendent and bestowed medals on the officers of the institution.

The mayor of the city, Mr. Aléxeiew, for the people of Moscow, expressed his gratitude for the work of the asylum and for all the good it had accomplished, and congratulated Mr. Roukavischnikow on the success of the celebration. In the name of the University of Moscow Mr. Tarassow made the following address:

The most ancient of the universities of the Empire, on the occasion of the celebration of its 25th anniversary, salutes the first Russian reformatory for young delinquents. It is particularly agreeable to the University of Moscow to join in all these congratulations addressed to-day to this establishment, in the persons of Nicholas and Constantine Roukavischnikow, who have devoted their lives to the prosperity of this great work. We have had them on the seats of the University of Moscow. It is a matter of just pride that we have produced such men as Nicholas Roukavischnikow. He is not with us. God has called him to a better world. It is not proper to mourn for him to-day, but to thank the Almighty for having given him to us. All his life was an example, and this example is not without result if we judge by the work of his brother Constantine. The university has given us another eminent man in this field. I speak of Mr. Kapoustine, the superintendent at Dorpat. To-day the University of Moscow, thanking the asylum for the past, offers a fraternal hand for the future.

Following this Mr. Mouraview read an address in Russian, after which he spoke at length in French, which was frequently interrupted with applause. Only the conclusion of this lengthy and eloquent address can be given:

But I see it is time I must close. Eyewitnesses of the remarkable results attained by this establishment in its truly reformatory work for removing from these children the last vestiges of past faults, we recognize this asylum as one of the greatest, most efficient and pacific victories in our country over vice and crime. We are doubly happy to speak to-day at an anniversary which we hope will be followed by good results. I say doubly, for this anniversary has become for us a double festival by the presence of the members of the first International Prison Congress held in Russia. On the eve of their return to their own countries, with hearts the same as ours, charmed and astonished with this imposing spectacle of this sublime fraternity of science and progress we can rightly say: Dear colleagues and colaborers, as far as possible, we are with you in the gigantic contest of good against evil and of light against darkness. We desire to fight in your ranks with some difference, perhaps, of forces and of language imposed on us by the needs and interests of our country, but with a common purpose towards the same generous end—the mutual safety of society and the individual, in the name of the same eternal principles of justice and humanity.

Following this there were deputations and addresses from the court of Moscow, from the association of the justices of the peace of the city, from the Law Societies of Moscow and St. Petersburg, from the Agricultural Colony of St. Petersburg, from the Reformatory of Kharkow, from the colony of Nijni-Novgorod; from the Asylum of Bolchevo; from the members of the third reunion of the reformatory institutions of Russia, and from some other reformatory establishments in Warsaw, Saratow, etc., from the asylums of Moscow, from the Society for the Protection of Children Transported to Siberia, and from the asylums and factories of the Society for the Assistance of Discharged Minors.

After the address an orchestra, composed of inmates of the school, played a religious hymn, and after that the national anthem, which was applauded and encored. The playing was very good. The invited guests then visited the institution in detail, including the industrial sections.

At 6 p. m. the high dignitaries of the city and all the members of the congress met at the dining hall of the Hermitage, where they were entertained by Mr. Roukavischnikow. The hall was luxuriously decorated with a profusion of flowers, each guest finding at his place a button-bouquet of roses and a collection of small flags, one for each country represented. A fine orchestra was present and enlivened the festival with charming music. The usual toasts included one to the host and hostess. Complimentary addresses were made by Mr. de Jagemann, Mr. Voisin, Mr. Rada, Mr. Yakoview, Mr. Herbette, Mr. Monraview, and Mr. Wraskoy. At the close of the banquet Mr. Roukavischnikow distributed to each person an album containing photographs of his institution, including views of the boys engaged in various mechanical industries, with a commemorative silver medal of very artistic execution. The morning of the 30th was devoted to visiting various places of interest. Some went to the Palace of Justice in the Kremlin. They met in the grand round hall of St. Catharine and were received by Mr. Monraview, procurer of the court of justice. Many delegates, including ladies, visited the Grand Palace in the Kremlin, the principal cathedrals, the ancient home of the Romanoff boyards, the galleries of Tretiakow and Botkine, and some prisons, and the historical museum. These and other places of interest were very attractive to the visitors. The historic Kremlin alone was sufficient to take the entire attention for many days. It contains the monuments of all epochs. It is a collection of superb structures which follow no special style. Sometimes they are Byzantine, then Gothic, then Arabian, and then even in the Hindu or Chinese. Karamzine has said:

> It was in the Kremlin that Dmitri Donskoï unfurled his flag before setting out for Mamai, that Joan Wassilievitch trampled under foot the image of the Khan to which the grand dukes would render homage. It was from the Kremlin that the sacred shades of his virtuous ancestors drove Ivan the Terrible when he had ceased to be virtuous. It was by the Holy Gate that Wassili Chonïsky entered, condemned to death, and then pardoned by Dmitri, holding with one hand a cross and with the other a sword with which to kill the imposter. The place is shown where Dmitri fell in leaping from one of the windows of the palace. It was in the area in front of the church of the Assumption that the young Czar Michael, just crowned, wept bitter tears while the Russians embraced his feet and shed tears of joy.

It was from the high ground of the Kremlin that Napoleon looked down upon burning Moscow. Its cathedrals contain the last mortal remains of all the Czars of Russia before Peter the Great, and also of Peter II. The new palace with its St. George's Hall, a dream of architectural beauty, and with other vast rooms, including the apartments of their majesties, the winter garden, etc., is a place of wonderful interest.

Few, if any, palatial interiors of Europe surpass it. The treasury of the Kremlin was visited and kept the members a long time in viewing the ancient historical collection. Here were the crowns of ancient Emperors, their scepters, including that of Peter the Great, a throne of ivory, thrones ornamented with precious stones, and thrones with ornamental figures, the clothing of Peter the Great as a sailor, vessels of gold and of silver, standards of the Czars, state carriages, etc., without number, showing the various trappings of ancient royalty. There were other places of interest to visit. Cannons of the Kremlin, the Arsenal, the Senate, the Monastery of Meradies, the palace of Nicholas, etc. But a description of this oriental and most wonderful city of Russia must be looked for in books of travel.

At 6 o'clock in the evening the banquet provided by the mayor of Moscow took place. There were 380 guests. The invitation card was in Russian. The menu card was in colors and the engraving was a work of high art. At the top was a view of the Kremlin, showing the walls and several of the finest churches. There were present at the dinner many distinguished Russians. The dinner was in the pavilion of the Sokolniki Park, which was decorated with great luxury. The building was somewhat like a tent in form, built by the Emperor a few years since in which to entertain his generals. In the center was a large band stand, and the tables in the great auditorium were arranged around it. The dinner was complete in all respects and the best social spirit prevailed throughout. Toasts and addresses were the order of the evening. The orchestra played the national hymn and other selections. Long after the dinner was served the delegates remained in the pavilion in familiar conversation with each other and with noted gentlemen of Moscow.

The next morning, July 1st, the members of the congress visited the transfer prison of Moscow, and there saw many convicts who were to be sent the next day to Siberia. They had been grouped in large rooms so they could be seen more readily. The men were dressed in long coarse gray overcoats and had the hair on one side of the head closely cropped. There were in one room many young boys 12 to 15 years of age, who had either committed some offense or were allowed to go with their parents. In one large room were many women with their young children. They had passed the night on wide wooden benches which served for beds. In driving away from the prison, a consignment of prisoners was met on the street in charge of armed soldiers. The women and small children were in carts and the men on foot with chains on their legs. Both in prison and out of it these convicts were a sorry looking lot indeed. They were criminals and not politicals. Two were spoken of as brothers who had just been condemned for killing their parents. Most of those in this prison were to go to Siberia as colonists, their exile being for life.

The same day many delegates went by special train to the correctional

institution of Bolchevo, near Mytistchi. They were very pleasantly entertained by a dinner and an orchestra, and by singing by the boys of the national hymn and other selections. The dinner was followed by toasts and addresses. There were 50 boys in this school and they were mainly trained in mechanical industries. The members inspected the shops where the boys were at work and found them industrious, well trained, and quite expert in mechanics.

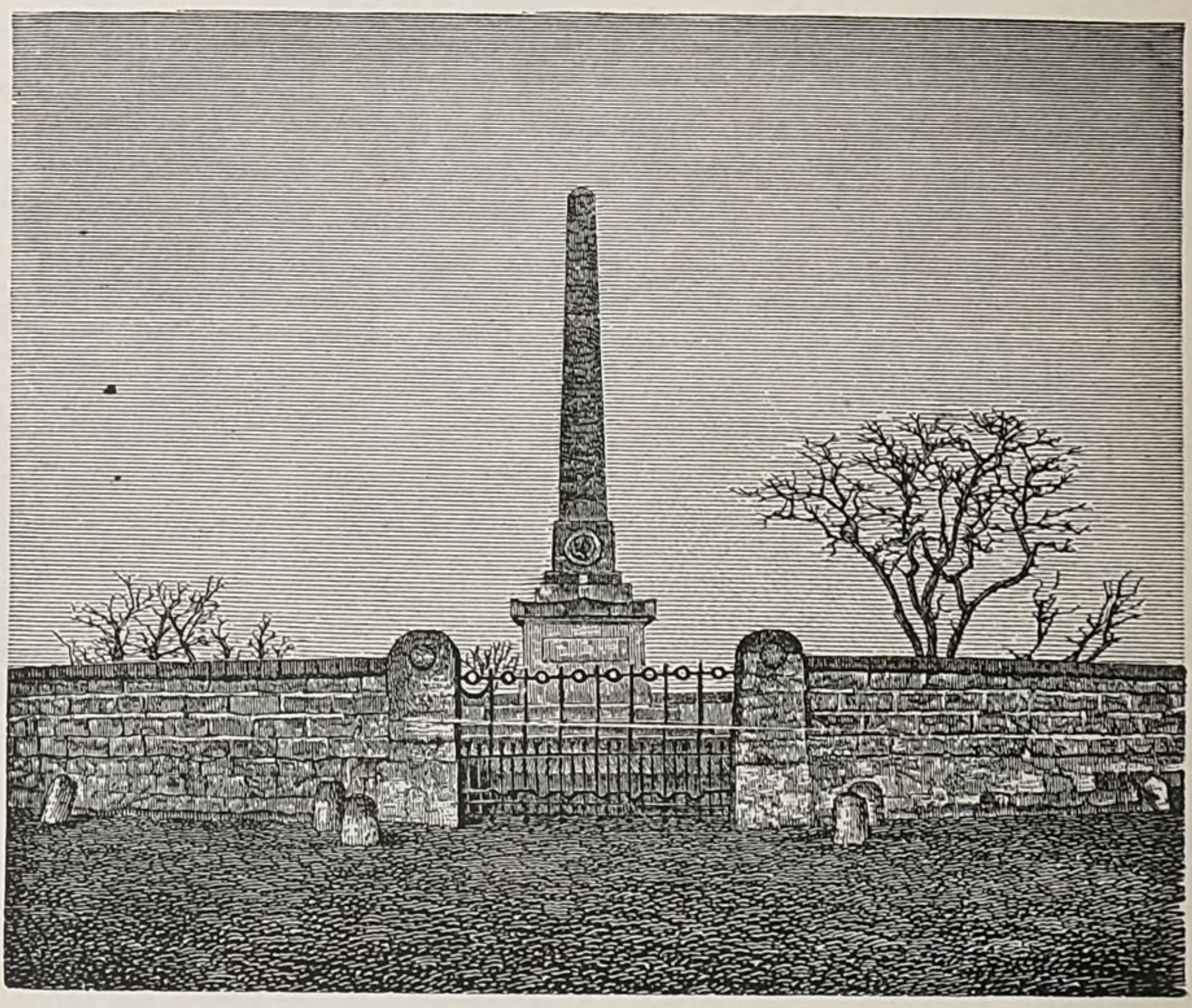
In going to and from Bolchevo, from the depot, the excursionists passed through a typical Russian village, which differs so much from an American one that a brief description will be given from memory. This lies at the crossing of two roads and the houses are on the cross roads only, there being no other streets or lanes. The houses are about 15 by 20 feet on the ground and one story high. Many are built of logs, some boarded over, and all are unpainted, weatherbeaten, and old. The absence of ornamental trees was noticeable. The streets are narrow. Where the road passes through the farms it is only about wide enough for one carriage.

On the farms were seen many groups of laborers, among which there were usually as many women as men. The white and red being so conspicuous in their clothing it made the groups quite striking and picturesque.

The excursion to Bolchevo terminated the series of banquets and other entertainments furnished by the commission of organization. At 9 p. m. of that day the special train with the members on board left Moscow for St. Petersburg where they arrived the next morning at 11 a. m., highly gratified with their visit to the eastern capital.

July 31, or very soon after, the foreign delegates set out for their respective homes, the Fourth International Congress having ended.

The courteous attentions of the committee of organization did not cease until the trains bearing their guests had actually moved from the station.



MONUMENT TO JOHN HOWARD.

OPPOSITE THE PRISON OF KHERSON, AT THE END OF HOWARD STREET.

JOHN HOWARD: REVIEW OF THE MEMORIALS TO HIS MEMORY IN RUSSIA.

By Mr. GALKINE-WRASKOY,

Chief of the Administration General of Prisons of Russia

The Fourth International Prison Congress, which convened at St. Petersburg, 100 years after the death of John Howard, is in a manner devoted to the memory of that illustrious philanthropist.

It is upon Russia that Providence has bestowed the honor of guarding the mortal remains of that generous man, who, according to the words of the apostle, *Omnibus omnia factus est ut omnes faceret salvas.* A quarter of a century had scarcely passed since the death of Howard, and while the memory of his work in Russia was still living, his ideas of prison reform penetrated our legislation and served as the basis for all further reforms in the domain of prison discipline.

The salutary influence of these ideas, and the exceptional services rendered to humanity by Howard, have been highly appreciated by the august sovereigns of Russia.

A proof of this is in the erection at Kherson, in honor of Howard, a monument, an exact copy of which ornaments the assembly hall of the congress. Another proof is seen in the international contest open at the time of the congress, aiming to call forth a special work upon Howard, and to make for him a *monumentum ære perennius.*

Desiring to provide for the members of the Fourth International Prison Congress a souvenir of the honors rendered to the memory of Howard in Russia, I have thought it opportune to make use of my pamphlet upon the monument of Howard at Kherson. I add to this the regulations for the international contest, mentioned above, and the design of the medal, the prize to the successful author. Above all, good fortune renders it possible that I can reproduce a picture of Howard, of which the following is the history.

In 1790, some weeks after the death of John Howard, there appeared in London a pamphlet entitled "Anecdotes of the life and character of John Howard, esq., LL. D." The anonymous author of that work appeared to be an intimate friend of the deceased. The pamphlet was ornamented by an engraving of Howard, and taken after a crayon portrait. The artist of this crayon, also anonymous, was a lady who had lived in the same house with Howard for many years before he undertook his last journey. There is, then, every reason to believe that this portrait sufficiently resembles the original.

The engraving mentioned has been used as a model for a high-relief, sculptured by the artist, Miss Butler. A photograph of this high-relief

has been kindly placed at our disposal by Mr. F. Mouàt, M. D., LL. D., vice president of the Royal Society of Statistics in London.

We express to him here our warm thanks for having made it possible for us to reproduce the portrait of John Howard, who, as has been said of him, is a "unicum" very dear to all.

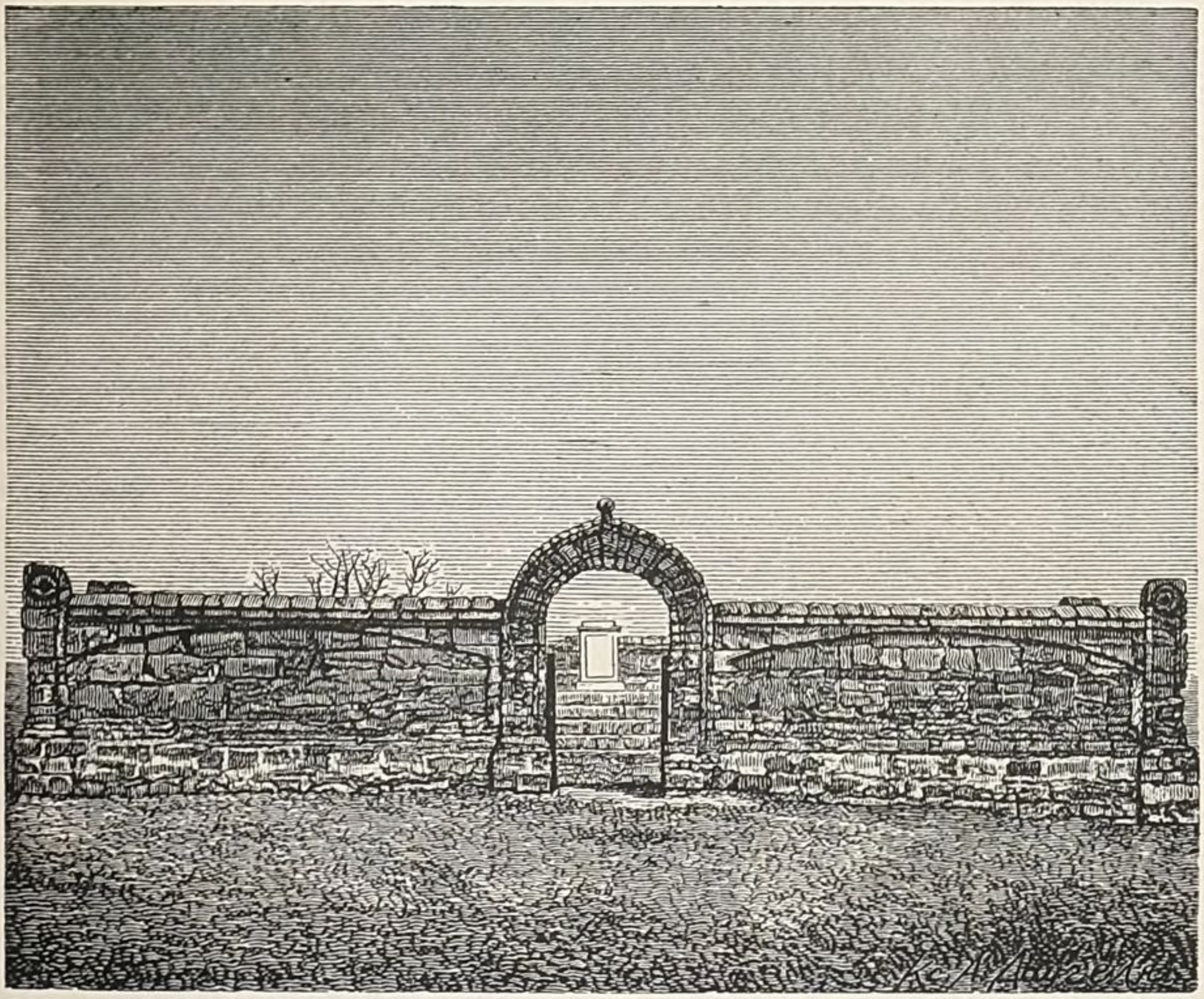
M. GALKINE-WRASKOY.

ST. PETERSBURG, 1890.

THE MONUMENTS OF JOHN HOWARD AT KHERSON.

Many persons are, perhaps, ignorant that in the southern part of Russia, at Kherson, can be found two monuments of John Howard—one upon his grave, in the environs of the city, the other in the city itself, on the prison grounds.

The work of Howard in prison reform is so well known that it will be unnecessary to speak here of the services which he has rendered in that respect. It suffices to say that Howard, imbued in the latter half of the eighteenth century with the idea of making "prisoners honest and industrious," by introducing work in the prisons, sacrificed all his life to make this principle of prison system successful in his country, and crowned his efforts by his celebrated work "The State of Prisons in England and Wales." It was not, however, only in the direction of human suffering that Howard devoted himself; the Eastern plague, the manner of fighting this pestilence, the rational organization of quarantines, furnished material for his work during the last years of his life, and formed the object of his last journey. After having ended, in Smyrna, his first expedition of that kind, in 1776, when the pestilence scourged that city, Howard was subjected to a quarantine at Venice and returned to his country only to undertake soon a new voyage to the Orient across Russia. Because of the war with Turkey, Howard was obliged to stop at Kherson. That city had just been built, and it can easily be imagined in what state the pharmacies and hospitals were to be found. The fever made most frightful ravages in the town itself and in the vicinity. Howard devoted himself unremittingly to his vocation. He daily visited the hospitals, the prisons, and made excursions into the surrounding country, in spite of his advanced age and the precarious state of his health. It ended in his falling ill himself and dying the 20th of January, 1790, in the arms of Rear-Admiral Priestman, his friend and compatriot. Before breathing his last he requested to be buried at the Dauphiné Farm, with no tombstone but a sun-dial. The annals of Kherson affirm that the impression produced by the death of Howard, who had devoted his whole life to the relief of moral and physical infirmities of man, was extremely profound. All the convalescent population of the town flocked together to accompany his remains to their last resting place. At the head of the funeral cortége were the celebrated Admiral Mordvinow, married to an English lady, Rear-Admiral Priestman, and Major-General Koblet.



MONUMENT ON THE TOMB OF JOHN HOWARD.

NEAR KHERSON.

When in Kherson during 1879, I procured photographs of these two monuments, also information concerning their history. It appears from these documents that the first monument erected to Howard over his grave was due to Admiral Mordvinow and to General Koblet, also to Mr. Dauphiné, owner of the farm, who, according to this information, had furnished the necessary means. The face of the monument was ornamented by the bust of Howard.

Such was the origin of the monument to Howard, but in 1817 the minister of public instruction, Prince Alexander Galitzine, wrote the following to the late governor-general of southern Russia, Count of Langeron, at the time of his abode in St. Petersburg:

The illustrious Howard who died at Kherson in 1790, is buried 4 versts from the town. The base of the obelisk formerly placed over his grave was ornamented with his bust and an inscription enumerating the services he had rendered to humanity. There is now no longer a trace of anything which speaks of Howard. Fifteen years ago the inscription and the bust* were destroyed. The iron chains which protected the monument, and even the stone pillars which supported the chains, had been destroyed sometime previous. His Majesty, the Emperor, having authorized the restoration of this monument, requests you, Monsieur the Count, to present to His Imperial Majesty your opinion upon the plan for the restoration of the said monument.

In July, 1817, the Count Langeron wrote to Prince Galitzine:

Howard desired to be buried far from human habitation, and asked that no monument be placed over his grave, unless it were a sun dial.†

The Count thought it would be very proper to erect a monument to Howard within the walls of the fortress of Kherson, near the church, at the right, where several monuments already had been placed in memory of men who have well deserved this honor from the country. This mark of gratitude will exhibit to the world the homage which Russia renders to virtue. The dying wish of Howard could be fulfilled by placing a sun dial at the summit of the monument.

The emperor ordered rebuilt over the grave of Howard a monument in the form of a sun dial.

The year following, in 1878, during the imperial journey in southern Russia, one of the first cares of His Majesty was to order the construction from the funds of the treasury of a monument worthy of Howard, "in memory of his unparalleled services rendered to humanity," and to erect this monument before the new prison, then in construction. It is known that this idea was suggested to the sovereign by Count Saint Priest, governor of Kherson, who also had a share in erecting the second monument in honor of Howard.

In 1820 the academy of fine arts received an imperial order to copy a plaster medallion sent by the Duke of Gloucester, and to place that copy in the obelisk raised at Kherson in honor of Howard. The obelisk

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*This bust was modeled after a mask molded from the features of the dead, under the supervision of Admiral Mordvinow. The bust of Howard in the church of St. Paul in London is also modeled after this mask.

†Howard verbally expressed this desire in the presence of Rear-Admiral Priestman.

was already finished, and a place could not be found for this figure of Howard. Upon a further order from the emperor, the monument was rebuilt after designs made at Kherson by Mr. Guétchina, under the direction of Mr. Comstadius, governor of the province, who took upon himself part of the expense, in proof of his veneration for Howard, who had, in the house of Mr. Comstadius' father, taken the fever which ended his life. The restoration, begun in 1826, was nearly finished in the same year.

When Prince Worontzow, then governor-general of Odessa, also in 1826, was on his way to Moscow, an unknown person sent him a small sum of money, with a letter saying that the sum was intended for placing a sun dial on the monument of the illustrious philanthropist. Prince Worontzow also gave a certain sum for the same purpose. Many inhabitants of Odessa, informed of the fact, wished also to add to the subscription, which very soon resulted in an amount more than sufficient to enable them to order a sun dial from Italy.

It seems from the preceding that the monument over the grave of Howard is due to the initiative of his friends, while the idea of the memorial monument at Kherson belongs to the Emperor Alexander I.

Here is a description of the two monuments. The tombstone is a square pedestal in marble on a stone base. This pedestal measures three-fourths of an archine in width and one and one-half archines in height.

The inscriptions are:

North side: "Johannes Howard. Ad Sepulcrum stas Quisquis es Amici."

East side: "1790."

South side (in Russian): "John Howard. Whoever you may be, it is your friend who lies here."

The higher level of the pedestal is ornamented by a sun dial. Since 1851 the monument has been surrounded by a stone wall erected by General Illinsky, governor of Kherson, who made it at his own expense.

The second monument is erected at Kherson in the center of a great square, facing the prison. It is made of gray stone. Three large steps lead to the great pedestal surmounted by four Ionic columns. Upon these columns is a second pedestal, smaller and ornamented by a marble medallion of Howard in profile. Upon the two east and west sides facing the prison may be read in the panels the Latin inscriptions:

East side: "Alios salvos fecit."

West side: "Vixit Propter alios.

Upon the principal face of the great pedestal the Russian inscription reads: "Howard. Died the 20th of January, 1790, at the age of 65 years."

The monument is surmounted by an obelisk, ornamented on the south side by a sun dial. The total height of the monument is four *sagénes*

and two and one-half *archines.* The entire monument is surrounded by a stone wall with an iron gate. The interior of the walled inclosure is planted with trees.

The two monuments were restored in 1875 at the expense of the state.

INTERNATIONAL CONTEST UPON THE WORK OF JOHN HOWARD IN THE HISTORY OF PRISON REFORM.

The meeting of the Fourth International Prison Congress at St. Petersburg coinciding with the centennial of the death of John Howard, who died in 1790 at Kherson, the Imperial Government of Russia desires to render homage to the memory of the celebrated philanthropist in opening an international contest upon "The work of John Howard in the history of prison reform."

The works presented for the contest, printed or in manuscript form, should be written in Russian or French. Works in other languages are permissible on the condition, always, that they are accompanied by a French version.

Subjects to be discussed: (*a*) Biography of John Howard and review of his works; (*b*) Character of prisons at the time of John Howard, and an enumeration in detail of all innovations accomplished and projected by Howard in these institutions; (*c*) Influence of Howard's ideas upon the subsequent history of prison reform; (*d*) Bibliography of Howard's writings.

The works should be addressed by May 1 [13], 1890, at the latest, to the President of the Commission of Organization of the Fourth International Prison Congress at St. Petersburg, Théatre-Alexandre, General Administration of Prisons.

The works should be marked by a design. The authors will, moreover, send to the committee their names and addresses in a special envelope.

The committee for examining these works will be chosen by the Fourth International Prison Congress.

For the works which the committee consider satisfactory there will be awarded two gold medals (one of large size), silver medals, and honorable mentions.

The author who wins the large gold medal will receive, moreover, a prize of 2,000 francs. The work which wins the first prize will be inserted in the proceedings of the Fourth International Prison Congress. The right of reprinting will be reserved to the author.

The manuscripts and printed works which have not been taken away by their authors within 2 years will be destroyed.

The result of the contest will be published in the bulletin of the International Prison Commission and in the proceedings of the Fourth Congress.

The medal represented here, and which is the prize of the contest, has upon one side the portrait of Howard, a true copy of the figure which ornaments his monument at Kherson. The two mottoes, "Alios

salvos fecit" and "Vixit propter alios," are also taken from the monument.

The reverse side has the explanatory inscription: "In memoriam Johannes Howard, qui vitam suam miseris consecravit, egregio hujus operum historico." The space left vacant is reserved for the name of the laureate.

CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION OF THE DEATH OF JOHN HOWARD AT KHERSON.

The municipal council of Kherson, wishing to render homage to the memory of John Howard on the anniversary of his death, adopted at its session held January 9, 1890, the following resolutions:

1. On the anniversary of the death of John Howard, the 20th of January, will be sung a requiem at the local prison chapel, and a litany before the monument of Howard.

2. A special sum of money will be laid aside in order to better the food of the prisoners that day.

3. A marble tablet with inscription will be placed upon the wall of the house formerly occupied by Howard.

4. The street at the end of which stands the monument of Howard will be named "Howard street."

5. A telegram will be addressed to the "Howard Association," of London, as follows: "The city of Kherson in celebrating the centennial anniversary of the death of the eminent philanthropist, John Howard, who died and was buried at Kherson, make it their duty to inform the association which bears his name, and to express to it the sentiments which fill the whole city, sentiments of deep respect for the memory of the dead and of lively sympathy for the humane ideas which inspired his unceasing activity for the good of the unfortunate and of the prisoners."

On the 20th of January, at 11 o'clock in the morning, the civil and military authorities of the city, the mayor with the city council, the representatives from Zemstvo, the members of the Medical Society of Kherson, and many others met at the prison grounds. The prisoners occupied places designated for them.

The requiem ended, all the participants proceeded to the monument of Howard, which was decorated with garlands, and a wreath of immortelles around the medallion of the illustrious dead. Another wreath of flowers, varied with myrtle and laurel leaves tied with a white ribbon, bearing the inscription, "From the General Administration of Prisons, 1790–1890," ornamented the base of the monument. A great crowd of people of every class surrounded the monument.

That evening, in one of the parlors of the city hotel, in the presence of a large public assembly, was a solemn meeting of the Medical Society of Kherson, devoted to the memory of John Howard. The president of that society, Dr. Popper, read an outline of the life of Howard, and pronounced afterwards a discourse from which we translate the important parts:

The biographical outline, which I have just read, shows that John Howard sacrificed, in order to attain the end which he proposed, his fortune and the happiness of

a domestic life. He had taken upon himself the vicissitude of a homeless wanderer, full of privations and dangers of every kind, and finally in so doing sacrificed his life. In appreciating the activity of John Howard, we should not measure it after the standard of our present ideas; we should have before our eyes the character of the last century and epoch when he made himself the champion of humanity and justice towards prisoners. Time largely modifies ideas and customs. Thus, for example, we can not read without horror descriptions of the time of the Roman emperors, when criminals, condemned to serve as food to ferocious beasts, to lions and tigers, made merry the people gathered to witness those terrible sights. Likewise in the Middle Ages, public conscience was rarely shocked at the sight of human beings given up to the stake or submitted to frightful tortures. And at the time of Howard, tortures yet existed, and were found by him in practice in some prisons. What took place in the English prisons Howard has revealed to us. The condition of prisons on the continent was no better; moreover, they were so crowded that the unfortunate prisoners now and then were stifled for want of air. Also, Bequerelle reports that he came to the French prisons when the prisoners struggled to the death in order to open a passage as far as the window permitting them to inhale a breath of fresh air. According to Bentham, spite, the spirit of vengeance, and misery reigned in these schools of crime. Every prisoner naturally reached the level of the worst; the most downright vagrants communicated to others their wicked habits; the most clever taught his art to the others; the most depraved gave to all the character of his ignominy.

The contemporaries of Howard considered such a state of affairs as perfectly natural. It is not astonishing that, in order to change the ideas rooted for many centuries in the popular opinion upon prisons and prisoners, there was need of a man of an energetic, persevering, and fearless character, of a man imbued with a vivid faith in the sanctity of what he considered truth. Such was Howard. He devoted to his cause nearly half a century of work; he sacrificed everything for it, absolutely everything.

After speaking of the touching sympathy which Howard had won at Kherson, and relating the history of the monuments erected in his honor, and explaining the ideas contained in the eloquent inscriptions ornamenting these monuments, Dr. Popper ended his discourse by a warm appeal to those who were interested in prison reform to study the principles of that true friend of humanity.

CONFERENCE OF MANAGERS OF REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTIONS IN GLASGOW.

There was a meeting of the managers of the reformatory and industrial institutions of England, Scotland, and Ireland, in Glasgow, June 10th to 13th, 1890, under the auspices of the Reformatory and Refuge Union. There were 300 delegates in attendance representing over 130 institutions and boards. A few of these institutions were for adult women, but with a few exceptions they were for children; some for boys, some for girls, and others for both. Their names generally indicated their object; as Aberdeen Girls' Reformatory, Ayr Industrial School, Birmingham Princess Alice Orphanage, Blackburn Boys' Home, Bridge of Weir Orphan Homes of Scotland, Bristol Red Lodge Girls' Reformatory (established by the lamented Mary Carpenter), Dublin Ragged Boys' Home, Edinburgh Original Ragged Schools, Edinburgh Robertson's Orphan Home, Glasgow Day Industrial Schools, Glasgow Discharged Prisoners Aid Society, Glasgow Homes for Destitute Children, Glasgow Industrial School for Girls, Glasgow Reformatory for Boys, Hardwick Reformatory, Kilmarnock Certified Industrial School, Liverpool Boys' Refuge, Liverpool Training Home for Girls, Manchester Girls' Home, London Boys' Farm Home, Church of England Homes for Waifs, Home for Little Boys, Reformatory and Refuge Union, Homes for Working Boys, Cripples' Home, East London Industrial School, Girls' Protective Home, Oxford Day Industrial School, Paisley Rescue Home, Perth Girls' School of Industry, Sheffield House of Help, Stirling Industrial School for Girls, Stirling Industrial School for Boys, Torquay Girls' Aid Society, Wellesley Training Ship, York Certified Boys' School and Yorkshire Union for Care of Young Girls. These are only a part. Glasgow had 18 institutions represented, Edingburg 13, Belfast 6, London 19, and it is well known that those which were represented were only a small part of the great number of institutions for children which exist in Great Britain, and especially in the larger cities. The large number of well-established and successful institutions for children in Great Britain is a pleasing proof of the general effort in child-saving work.

The writer was able to attend the first two days of this conference while on his way to St. Petersburg. He is greatly obliged to the Lord Provost for courtesies and attention which greatly added to the pleas-

ure of his visit. The first meeting was held June 10 at 9.30 a. m. in Merchants Hall, West George street. There was a large attendance. The Hon. John Muir, Lord Provost of Glasgow, presided. Among the noted persons present were the Rev. Dr. Burns, of the Cathedral; Archbishop Eyre; Sheriff Spens; Sir James Carmichael, Bart.; Mr. John Morrison and Mr. William Clark, of the Glasgow Juvenile Delinquency Board; Mr. James Nicol, City Chamberlain; members of the Glasgow School Board, etc.

In a brief address the Lord Provost welcomed the delegates to Glasgow and assured them that everything would be done to facilitate their labors and to render their stay in Glasgow pleasant and interesting. At the same time he extended to the delegates an invitation for himself and Mrs. Muir to a banquet at the new City Chambers for that evening.

Mr. A. J. S. Maddison, the well-known and efficient secretary of the Reformatory and Refuge Union, was the secretary-general and one of the principal managers of the conference. Mr. W. E. Hubbard, the able president of the Reformatory and Refuge Union, was also present, and greatly aided in the discussions and at times was presiding officer of the meetings.

The first paper read and discussed was by Mr. John Bowden, of the Boys' Farm Home of East Barnet, and the subject was: "What methods should we adopt in our schools for educating children in the right use of their leisure time?"

The address was quite lengthy, yet mainly practical. He saw in the misuse of leisure time, especially by the children of the poor, the source of many evils. During leisure time the habits of drinking, indulgence in low amusements, squandering hard-earned money in betting and gambling, etc., were rapidly developed. The polytechnics, libraries, gymnasia, swimming baths, recreation grounds, etc., do not reach the lowest. In their squalid homes and low associations æsthetic qualities do not thrive. We must work this waste material of humanity into useful and intelligent citizens. Most of our institutions are industrial, and the lives of the children are made up of three parts: their working life, school life, and home life. It is necessary to train the child to work, and he must be given intellectual training. But to give a child such a training as will lead him to employ his leisure time in a manner profitable to himself is a task seldom successfully achieved.

After these theoretical statements he went on to say that the education for leisure should be of two kinds—*first*, actual instruction given with this end in view in school and work time; *second*, such habits as are acquired by the practice of wholesome pursuits in recreation time. In the former would be instruction in reading, music, drawing, natural science in school time, and gardening, keeping poultry, bees, etc., in work time. In the latter, cycling, cricket, foot ball, and athletic games generally, keeping pets, for outdoors; chess, draughts, etc., for

indoors. On the value of each named he spoke at length. In one place he says: "All innocent games, even playing cards, should be countenanced, if not encouraged." As to Sabbath leisure, he said: "Allot a fair portion of the day to public worship and to instruction in religion for your children, and let the remainder be disposed of in any kind of harmless recreation suitable to your circumstances," such as music for indoors, walking or visiting friends for outdoors.

For the girls he advised reading poetry, biography, fairy tales, music, drawing, and embroidery. He also strongly advised dancing, as one of the healthiest, most natural, most universal, and most ancient of all physical exercises for women; that it was as useful for the girls from the slums as for the highest ladies of the land. In conclusion the speaker summarized his argument as follows:

> That many of the chief evils which affect society in general are the results of the misuse of leisure time, and, further, that this misuse is, in its turn, the result of a want of training and a knowledge of how to use leisure profitably; and, therefore, that it is most desirable that in all institutions for the training of the young—particularly of the poorer classes—special means should be taken to provide children with adequate instruction for the pleasurable and profitable use of their future leisure.

This address brought out an animated discussion, led by Mr. T. Adcock, superintendent of the Leicester Industrial School, and followed by Mr. Joseph Hassell, A. K. C., educational inspector of the Reformatory and Refuge Union; Rev. Brooke Lambert, vicar of Greenwich; Mr. Thomas Jackson, superintendent of the Ardwick Green Industrial School of Manchester; Mr. A. Thompson, superintendent Greenoch Industrial School; Mr. J. C. Galloway, of Glasgow; Mr. Dickson, superintendent Industrial School, Dundee; Major Collier, of London, and Mr. John Morrison, of Glasgow. The speakers in the main supported the views of Mr. Bowden, stating other means employed in their institutions to occupy leisure time. Mr. Galloway expressed views very strongly against dancing for the children in their charge; that it puts in them "a love for that which leads to such terrible evils as dancing undoubtedly does." Cricket, chess, draughts, were generally commended, and a few indorsed the use of cards. Mr. Jackson said "that every boy who had beat him at chess was doing well in the world."

The Rev. Mr. Lambert said that 24 years ago when a teacher he asked his boys to write an essay on amusements for outdoors and indoors in winter. A boy of the sixth grade wrote:

> Indoor amusement, why, toasting bread, roasting chestnuts, and knocking nails into walls. Outdoor amusements, why, skating and sliding and throwing snowballs.

He favored the proper use of amusements for leisure time, and said while we used them in a Christian manner we should not fear them because they have been abused.

It is worthy of note that the time given to the discussion of the papers and the interest taken in such discussions were greater at this confer-

ence than are usually given at like conventions in America. With us very valuable papers are often read, with little or no discussion following.

The next paper for the day was by Miss Emily Janes, honorary organizing secretary of the Yorkshire Union Ladies' Association for the Care of Young Girls. Her subject was "Schools for special cases." She estimated that in Great Britain there were in homes and schools, voluntary and certified, 200,000 waifs and strays, the flotsam and jetsam of a corrupt civilization. The school board of London has sent 11,000 of these to the state industrial schools. She set forth at some length the condition of the worst of this class which can not be reached by ordinary means, and advised special schools for their treatment, naming some where this system had been successful.

This paper was discussed by Mr. E. W. Thomas of London, Mr. Wm. Mitchell of Glasgow, Sheriff Spens of Glasgow, and by the Rev. Mr. Lambert, after which the following resolution was adopted:

When children have been shown to be of such moral depravity as to contaminate others, it is desirable that they should be provided for in special institutions.

Those who discussed the paper generally indorsed the views of Miss Janes, giving interesting incidents to illustrate what had come within their experience.

Another paper was read at this session. The title was: "How can the industrial schools of the country practically aid in the advancement of technical education?" This was by Mr. Joseph Hassell, A. K. C., and he confined his remarks to institutions for boys. He presented the importance of technical education, and showed the advantages of skilled labor in Germany, Belgium, Austria, and Switzerland. In this he saw one of the reasons of successful foreign competition and considered its cause lay in the defective curriculum of the English elementary schools. A boy is taught so that he may pass in class subjects, but the laboring boy if he handles coke is not taught that there are gas coke and foundry coke, and how they should be severally handled. The average school life is too short for training both the mind and the hand. On the continent the time is supplemented by evening schools, which he described as conducted in France, Switzerland, Germany, and Austria. He stated at some length how skilled labor could be taught in the common schools. As to the industrial schools he stated that out of 192 such schools for boys only 68 taught carpentry, 16 cabinet work, leaving 108 with no opportunity to use common tools. In 76 only wood-chopping was carried on; 10 of these are in London and 28 in the provinces. In only 33 is there any provision for working in iron and less for working in stone. The speaker advised:

1. The discontinuance of wood-chopping, except for the school, and the substitution of carpentry.

2. In every school the boys should be taught the use of the common tools of the carpenter, the plasterer, and the painter.

3. The more simple kinds of metal work should be introduced. The

introduction of such work need not incur great expense. Handy men should be engaged as labor masters, who should instruct and supervise the boys in their work.

This paper was discussed by Mr. A. B. P. Collins, superintendent of the Home for Working Boys, Long Acre, London; Mr. Gregory, superintendent of Homes for Little Boys, Farningham; Sheriff Spens, Glasgow, and by Mr. Hassell. At the conclusion the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Having regard to the recognized deficiency in the technical training of the young at the present day it is desirable that the increased facilities for such training should be given to the boys in the industrial schools of the country.

After the close of this session the members of the conference visited the Mossbank Industrial School, whither they were conveyed by omnibuses, and had luncheon. After this they were conveyed to the Parkhead Roman Catholic Reformatory for Boys and then to the Roman Catholic Girls' Reformatory and Penitentiary at Dalbeth, where tea was served. At the latter place the children entertained their visitors with songs and recitations. The delegates returned to the city at 5 o'clock.

The reception of the Lord Provost Muir and Mrs. Muir took place in the evening in the new city chambers. There were about 600 guests present, including many prominent gentlemen representing various interests in the city. The new municipal building in its exterior and interior is a marvel of strength and architectural beauty, and would be an ornament and credit to any city. Glasgow is essentially a city of stones; solid, real, and substantial as Scotch character. Even with the cheaper labor of Great Britain this city hall cost about $3,000,000. The entrance hall, the great stairway of colored marbles, the side walls of colored marbles, were of surpassing beauty. The writer did not see in the palaces of Russia or of western Europe any such work that was superior. The lord provost said some considered the city had expended too much, and yet all were proud of this great monument to Scotch skill, taste, and financial ability. During the banquet most excellent music was provided in the great stairway hall by the band of the First Lancashire Fusiliers.

The guests were received in the Satinwood Salon by the Lord Provost and Mrs. Muir, and afterwards passed into the large banqueting hall, where refreshments were served. The lord provost while receiving was in his official robes. The evening was spent in looking over the building and in conversation until 9 o'clock, when the guests assembled in the council chamber, where under the presidency of the lord provost addresses were made by Sir John Neilson Cuthbertson, Mr. Gallaway; Mr. Murray, Mr. M'Keith, Mr. A. A. Ferguson, and by Mr. Randall who explained the objects of the International Prison Congress and various American methods for the protection and care of dependent and delinquent children.

On motion, a cordial vote of thanks was accorded to the Lord Provost

and his lady, who were congratulated on the very successful nature of their entertainment. The lord provost expressed his thanks for the vote and the pleasure it afforded himself and Mrs. Muir to be present.

In the early part of the second day a number of the delegates visited the Abercromby Street Industrial Schools (Roman Catholic) and the Day Industrial Schools at Greene street, Patterson and Rose streets.

At 11 o'clock about 200 delegates left the city by train for the Bridge of Weir, to visit the Orphan Homes of Scotland. From the Bridge of Weir the party was conveyed to the homes, a distance of 2½ miles, over a beautiful country of green hills and valleys. This home is a little village of English cottages, two stories high, with steep roofs; each building being of a different style, artistic and attractive. It reminds one of the home for little boys at Farningham, near Kent, England. The streets run in various directions, so that the buildings are scattered, relieving the house of institutional appearance.

The guests were received at the church of the home by Mr. Brydon on behalf of the principal manager, Mr. Quarrier, who was absent in Canada. In the course of his remarks he stated that their system was the family one, that they had 24 cottages, each of which held about 30 children. Besides these they had the church, the schools, the work-shop, the general store, and the invalid's home for children of infirm health. He said that Mr. Quarrier began this work about 20 years ago with one child. There are now between 600 and 700 in the school. The speaker had been with Mr. Quarrier from the beginning. When he first met him there were only 3 children in a back room in a lane in Glasgow. They have also a training ship for boys for the mercantile marine. The buildings had cost about $500,000, and the money had come without collectors, and simply in answer to prayer.

The delegates in groups of 30 each visited the different homes, after which luncheon was provided in the upper hall of the schoolroom, Mr. Cameron Corbett, M. P., presiding. After this Mr. Hubbard proposed a vote of thanks to Mr. Quarrier, saying:

> We thought last night that we had seen something the like of which we had never seen before. I do not think we could express our admiration of the municipal buildings of Glasgow. A lady from England said to me that until last evening she had never been able to fully appreciate the feelings of the Queen of Sheba when she was invited to see the glory of the surroundings of Solomon. It will be a long time before we forget the pleasant entertainment we met with last night at the reception given by the lord provost of Glasgow, and I am sure we shall never forget our visit to Mr. Quarrier's homes. He seems to have realized my ideas of what a home should be, where everything should be so adapted, that we should raise a child not only step by step up the ladder of life and leave him where the least breath of adversity may push him down to the bottom, but should give him such a start in life that, humanly speaking, there will be little chance of failure in after life. Speaking in the name of the visitors here to-day, I wish every possible success in the future to Quarrier's homes. I hope we shall take to ourselves the secret of that success which has hitherto attended them—pure and unadulterated faith in God's mercy.

The company then divided into two sections, in rooms connected with the church, where various papers were read and discussed. Among the subjects were "Reformatory and Industrial School Bills," by Mr. G. A. Miller, honorable secretary Perth Girl's School of Industry; and a paper by Mrs. Eliza A. Walker, "On the Need of some special Provision for the Training and Employment of Boys and Girls who are Feeble-minded (not imbecile) or Infirm in Body;" a paper by Mrs. Flather, of Sheffield, on "Temporary Shelters;" and a paper by Rev. James S. Fletcher, D. D., chaplain and secretary to the Dublin By Lamp-light Institution, on "Our Female Penitentiaries: Can they be Made Self-supporting?" These papers were interesting, instructive, and very fully discussed.

This concluded the exercises at the Quarrier homes, and the guests, returning to the Bridge of Weir, returned to Glasgow by rail, and were taken in omnibuses to Mary Hill Industrial School, where they had tea, visited the institution, and then met in the chapel, where they were entertained with excellent singing by the girls. An address was delivered here by Mr. Hubbard, after which Mr. Wm. Mitchell read a paper on "Day Industrial Schools;" Mr. A. Falconer on "Emigration;" Dr. Sutherland, of Glasgow, on "Our Methods of Dealing with Habitual Offenders—Failure of Existing Enactments." The papers were discussed at length, closing the session for the day; after which the delegates were conveyed back to the city. The day in every respect had been interesting and profitable. The papers and discussions were generally commendable for the absence of mere theory, for their practical bearing founded on facts and experience, for their absence of rhetorical effort, and for the plain and direct manner in which they were presented.

The writer was unable to remain after the first two days. What has been given will show something of the general character of these national conferences.

The third day was occupied by a visit to the Cumberland Industrial School, a sail through the locks and around the training ship *Cambria*, a reception in the corporation galleries, where papers were read by Mr. John Lawson, of Glasgow, on "How to Help Male Discharged Prisoners;" by Mr. John Bowden, of Barnet, on "The Advantages of the Provident Benevolent Fund;" and by Dr. Wilson Bruce on "Medical Hints to Managers of Institutions." These papers were ably discussed by various speakers.

The fourth and final day was well employed by a visit to Edinburgh and the Original Ragged Industrial Schools at Liberton, luncheon at the Edinburgh Exhibition, excursion to the Trossachs, a visit to the Forth Bridge and to the training ship *Empress*, the best of its class

These conferences are held once in 3 years. Former ones have been in London, Bristol, Liverpool, Dublin, and Edinburgh in 1875. Of this conference the secretary general says: "Within a period of 3 days from June 10 to June 13, 1890, the 300 workers from the Reformatory and

Preventive Institutions of Great Britain, who assembled at Glasgow collected an amount of information and experience which they might not otherwise have acquired in as many years. The hints and suggestions which were imparted can not all be recorded here, for it was not alone in the formal discussions that ideas were exchanged, but quite as much, and probably even more, in the course of social intercourse of friend with friend; for the bond of a common work—a united effort to save perishing women and children in the love and strength of a divine Savior—is also the bond of sympathy and friendship. Common difficulties were quietly discussed, and respective merits of different methods of work, on both sides of the border and in Ireland and America, were deliberately weighed in the course of informal conversations between delegates from these different parts of the world."

In no country can preventive work be shown to have had such an influence on the reduction of pauperism and crime. The statistics show a most remarkable decrease. The labors of the men and women engaged in these conferences, in their institutions, in their influence on the general public and on legislation by parliament, have had very much to do to secure this result. The history of prevention and reformation in Great Britain records the names of Mary Carpenter, the Hills, Barwick Baker, and many others who have devoted their lives for the elevation and rescue of the children of the poor. The good following their labors can now be seen and known by all.

THE NEW OR VIBORG PRISON IN ST. PETERSBURG.

Elsewhere in this report reference is made to the new prison in the Viborg quarter, on the Neva, as one of the most perfect prisons in Europe. The accompanying plans and exterior view of the prison will give some idea of its extent and its interior arrangements. It is for 1,200 prisoners, and is mainly on the plan of the Philadelphia system; the prisoners working in their cells, which are roomy, well lighted and ventilated. It will be seen that the cells are on the outside and the corridors are in the center, thus affording sunlight and better ventilation. For a fuller description the following is translated from the French edition of Mr. Wraskoy's account of the Russian prisons from 1879 to 1889:

The necessity of a prison for short-term convicts has been recognized since 1860, when the wine warehouse of the epoch of the Empress Anna, in the Viborg quarter, was adapted to that purpose. But in time this prison fell into a state of entire disorganization, and, notwithstanding the improvements made in 1883, it could not be maintained any longer. In proceeding with the preliminary studies for the construction of a new prison in St. Petersburg, which in conformity to the scale of punishments recently adopted, should be on the cellular plan, the general administration took into consideration that besides the 700 prisoners in the old prison, from 150 to 200 others underwent imprisonment in the police quarters of the capital; and, finally, that in the prisons in the cities near St. Petersburg there was an equal number of prisoners. Consequently, in compliance with the ruling idea which prevailed in the application of the new system, viz, the centralization of the places of detention, the general administration concluded to construct in St. Petersburg a cellular prison for 1,150 inmates. This decision has been supported by the fact that the cellular system having had only a limited study in Russia it was preferable that the first essay in its application upon a great scale in Russia should take place in the capital, which would serve, in the meantime, as a school of technical education of prison management.

Considering the mode of construction, the general administration preferred to have the work directed by a special committee organized for that purpose, partly on account of the necessity of constructing the new building on the land occupied by the old prison, which must be demolished to give it place, and principally so as to diminish as much as possible the expenses. This project with approximate designs was submitted to the Emperor, who gave his sanction March 8, 1884. Upon this a construction committee was constituted under the supervision of the chief of the general administration, composed of Private Councilor E. J. Gibert, professor of architecture, assistant of the chief of the general administration of prisons, the attaché architect of the administration, one of the inspectors of the administration selected by the chief, and the chief of the bureau of construction of the general administration.

The construction of the prison was confided to one of the members of the committee, Mr. A. O. Tomischko, academician and architect of the general administration.

On account of the sickness of Mr. Bernhardt the presidency of the committee was confided to Mr. Gilbert, and in the place of the latter Mr. R. A. Gedike, professor of architecture and state councilor, was named.

Besides, in accord with the controller of the Empire, a representative of the administration was invited to act with the committee, and a regulation established to control the movements of the funds relative to the work.

In virtue of this regulation the controller of the Empire, besides his other rights and ordinary duties, must—

(1) Make a preliminary verification of all estimates before the expenses are incurred; that is to say, of all contracts, arrangements, and definite accounts with all contractors and bidders, as well as the assigment of accounts for the payment of money;

(2) Verify the amount of materials prepared and work done; and

(3) Delegate to his representative authority to assist at the letting the work to the contractors on competition.

Concerning the works themselves, which were inaugurated in May, 1884, it is proper to state as follows: In order to reach the greatest possible economy in the construction the committee adopted the system of division of contracts among commercial houses the best known for their financial ability and their thorough exactness in complying with their contracts. To demolish the ancient buildings as well as for certain earthwork and other labor the prisoners themselves were employed. Also the prison shops and the correctional establishments of St. Petersburg were put in requisition to manufacture doors, windows, locks, door trimmings, bells, iron beds, kitchen utensils in silver, furniture for the cells and the prison office, and mattresses. Very special attention was given to questions relative to lighting and for the water system.

It is known that in most of the prisons of Western Europe, for example in Holland, electric lighting has been adopted as offering the greatest advantages in an administrative point of view; for besides the facilities which it presents for the central regulation, it has the merit of not tainting the air nor smoking, and it furnishes a light sufficiently strong, and finally one that would not cause a fire. Seeking the best mode of lighting the new prison, the construction committee discarded entirely kerosene light, which after calculations made would cost 17,000 rubles annually, which would be less expensive than the other modes of lighting, but it would bring with it great inconvenience, which could not be estimated if we consider that a building such as the prison of St. Petersburg would require the daily lighting, at the same hour, of 1,544 lamps, of which 900 would be in the cells. It remained therefore to choose between gas made from oil, or naphtha, or electric light. The studies on this subject demonstrated that the first expenses in the establishment of electric light would be 66,000 rubles and the annual running expenses would be 24,600 rubles. On the other side the expenses of the establ ishment of oil gas would reach 50,000 rubles and the annual expense would be 47,245 rubles. Consequently the increase of the expenses of the first establishment where recourse is had to electric light (16,000 rubles) would be amply compensated the first year of its operation. As to lighting with naphtha gas the expenses of the plant at first would be 51,000 rubles and the annual expenses would be 29,333 rubles. Consequently the increase of expenses in this case, as well of 15,000 rubles in the plant in case of the adoption of electric light, would be overcome, thanks to the annual saving of 4,700 rubles in the running expenses.

Having for these reasons chosen the method of lighting by electricity the committee took into consideration that the necessary steam engines in the prison could be equally employed to furnish water for the prison. This would entail an expense of 2,500 rubles for a pump, an annual expense of 1,000 rubles, instead of 3,320 rubles which would go to pay the society which would have furnised the water. Besides

this a saving of nearly 600 rubles would be obtained, thanks to the employment of steam to melt the snows about the building.

At the time of preparing this report the construction work of the prison of St. Petersburg is in the following condition:

1. The following are completed and already occupied:

(*a*) The entrance building, two stories, containing the quarters for the guards, and the personnel of supervision, and a reception room for the public waiting for admission.

(*b*) Three buildings with two stories and basement, for lodgings for the personnel of the administration, and for the supervision service.

(*c*) One building with four stories and basement, for cellulár imprisonment, in which are placed 472 cells, besides the part occupied for storage or serving otherwise the needs of the service.

(*d*) Three hospital departments, which have before existed, but which have been re-made in the construction of the new prison. One of them was removed from another place. All three have been furnished with stoves* with main pipes, and all the interior has been changed.

(*e*) The kitchen and machine section. There will be found the kitchen and bakery, with the storage for provisions; the laundry, with the dryhouse and the storeroom for linen. In the machine section will be found the kettles, the engines, the electric dynamos for lighting, and the pump to furnish water for the prison.

(*f*) The baths.

2. The building intended for the religious and administrative service has been ordered by the administration, but only the basement and the first story are occupied. In the basement are the storerooms and the place where prisoners are delivered and where they are washed and clothed. In the first story will be found the prison office, the offices of employés, and a parlor. The upper story contains the chapel for the school, which is not entirely completed. In the chapel the floors have been laid and preparatory work has been done for completion of the walls. The iconostase has been presented by Mr. Tufiline, merchant of Kazan, and is now in the storehouse of the committee of construction. The holy images and mural paintings have been presented by Mr. Sadikow, artist.

3. The second building for cellular detention and in the basement for night separation for guarding prisoners in common will be probably completed sufficiently in the coming September or October to be occupied. There is yet painting to be done, and bells, doors, and beds to be placed.

4. There are nearly constructed:

(*a*) A stone building of two stories to be occupied by those having contagious diseases.

(*b*) A similar building for a dispensary, a reception room, and one for medical treatment, a room for disinfecting and one for washing linen on the first story, and one on the second story for prisoners confined for debt.

5. There remains yet to be constructed a building for the reception of the dead, with a chapel and a part of the exterior wall on Simbirsk street.

The total expense for the construction of the prison of St. Petersburg is 1,396,849 rubles.

Among the buildings belonging to the prison of St. Petersburg we have mentioned the three hospital departments. They contain thirty-eight beds each. They were constructed in 1882, when it was found impossible to leave the prisoners longer in the ancient prison of the city, called the Chateaux of Lithuanie hospital, which served

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* A Russian stove is generally about 3 feet in diamater, and 7 or 8 feet high, the outside being covered with porcelain tile, bent to conform to the side which is round. It is more like an upright furnace in the room.

not only for the needs of this prison but to receive the sick prisoners of the transfer prison and of the police. These hospitals have been constructed by the architect of the general administration of prisons, and cost, including the expenses for the improvement of the interior, 27,941 rubles.

To the prison of St. Petersburg, as a special institution, belongs the section for young prisoners.

Until 1884 the latter were confined in the police prison for the Koloma quarter, but in consequence of the necessity of increasing the places occupied by the police administration to lodge their inferior officers, they proceeded that year to construct a special edifice for the confinement of young delinquents on land located in the city in the Viborg quarter. Two wood buildings have been raised on stone foundation; one to contain fifty young people, including dormitories, shops, schools, dining rooms, and cells. The other contains the office and the dormitories of the employés. The construction was completed in 1886 and cost 30,464 rubles.

On the site occupied by the section for young offenders there are kitchen gardens in which the prisoners labor for the needs of the penitentiary establishments of the capital.

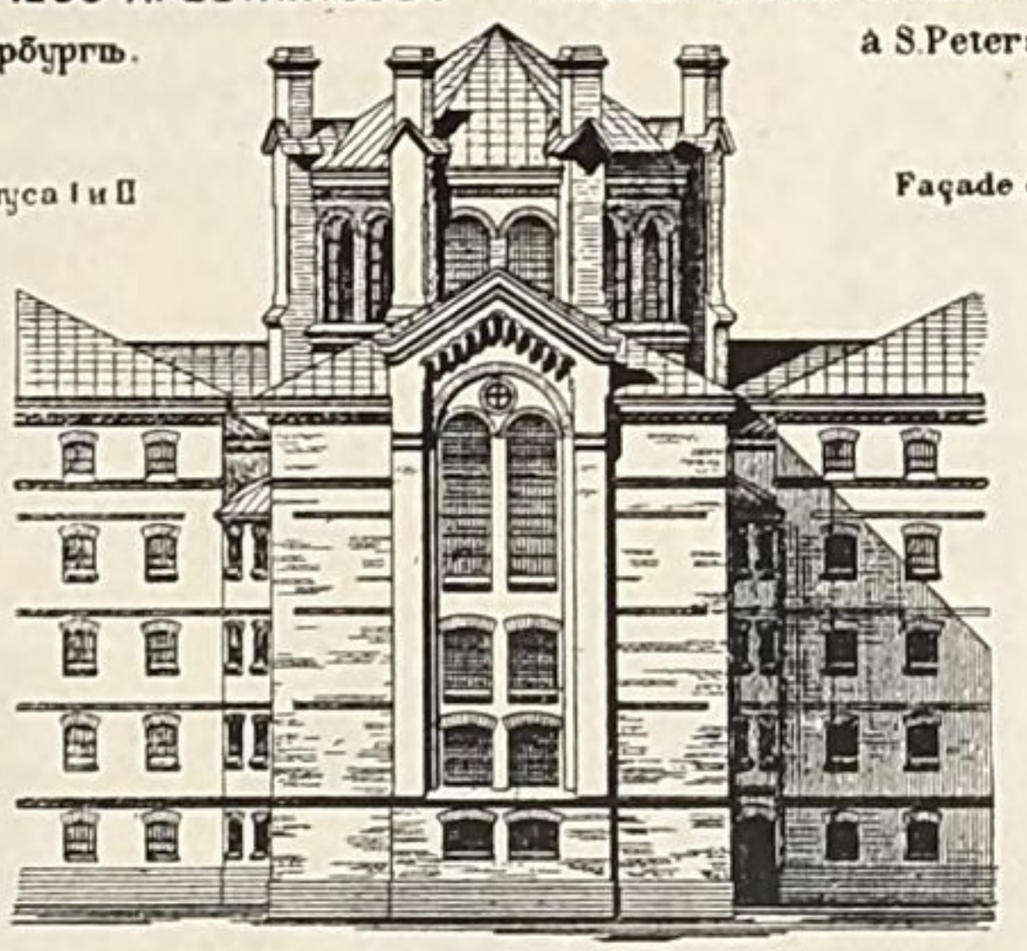
The kitchen gardens are surrounded by a wall in wood with stone posts, and a barrack has been constructed to serve for a resting place for prisoners when at work. All these buildings have been made by recourse to the labor of prisoners, and have cost 3,350 rubles, instead of 8,014 rubles, first estimated in the expenses.

This is the only description the writer has found of this notable prison, but the view herein and the ground plans will give a fair idea of its extent and its interior arrangements. Having gone over it quite thoroughly and compared views with specialists well acquainted with European prisons, it can be safely affirmed that there is probably no prison in Europe of better construction, arrangement, or better adapted to its purpose.

ПРОЕКТЪ ТЮРЬМЫ НА 1200 АРЕСТАНТОВЪ. PROJET D'UNE PRISON POUR 1200 DÉTENUS.

въ С.Петербургѣ. à S.Petersbourg.

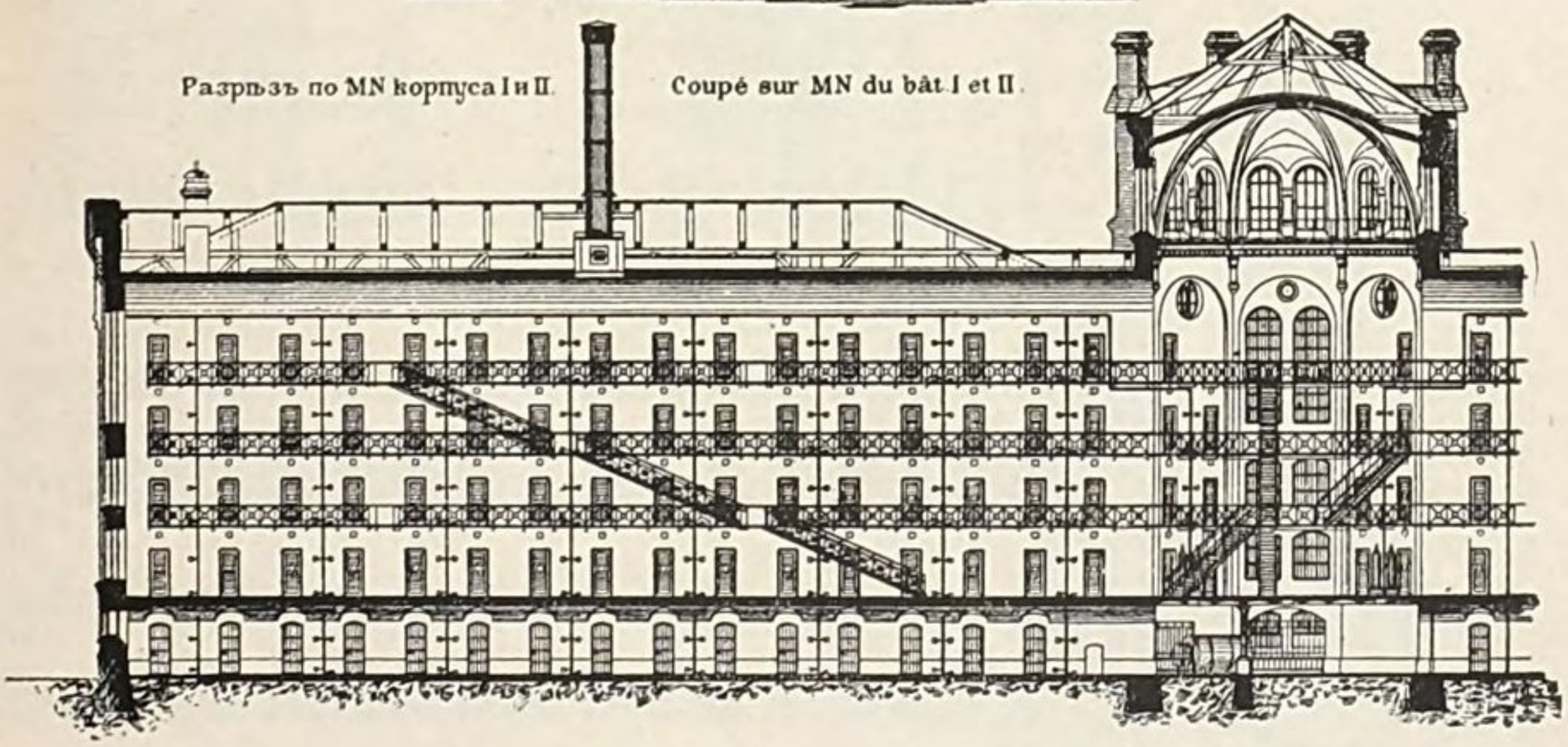
Фасадъ корпуса I и II



Façade du bât I et II.

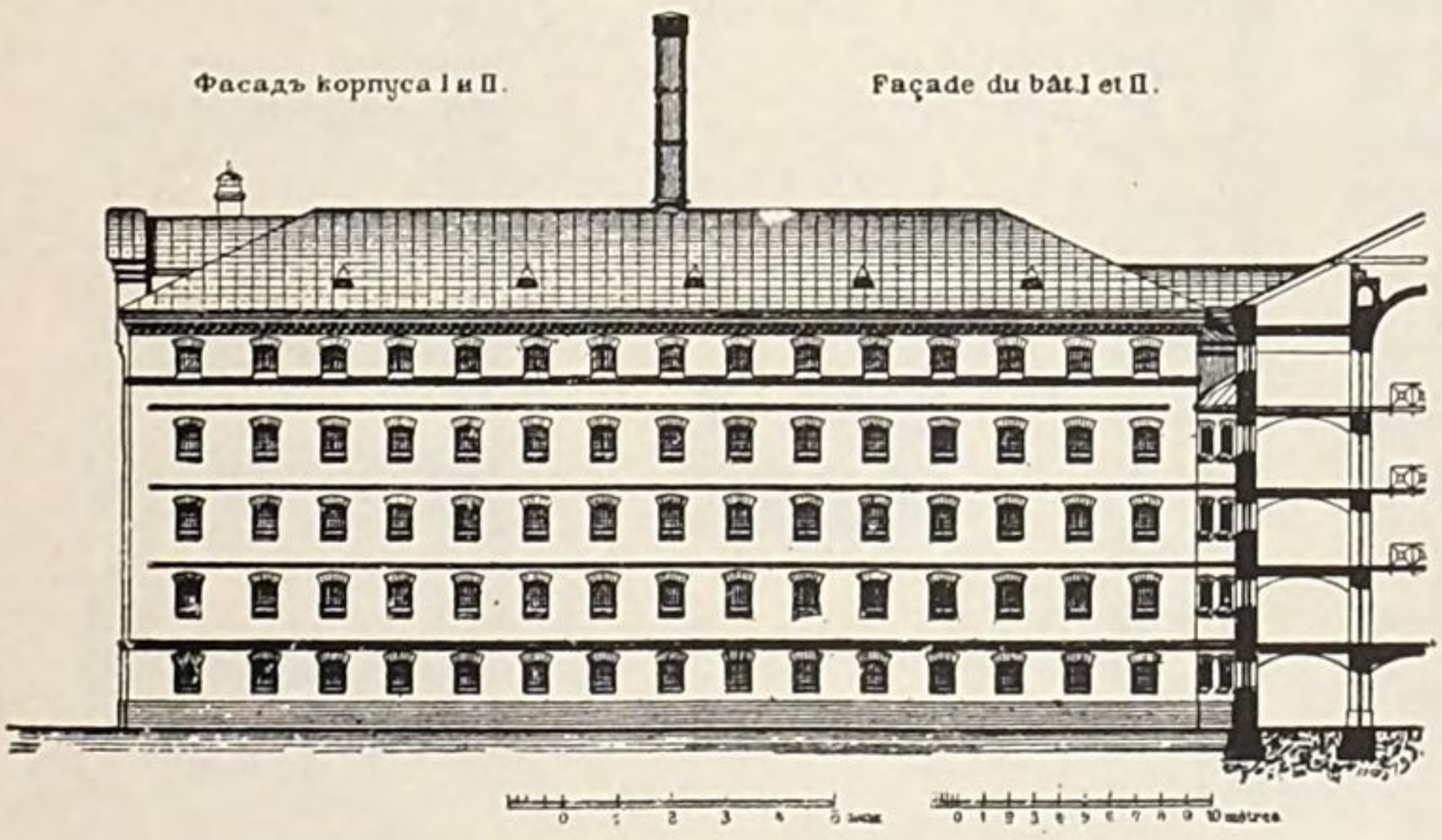
Разрѣзъ по MN корпуса I и II.

Coupé sur MN du bât I et II.



Фасадъ корпуса I и II.

Façade du bât I et II.



Проектир. Ар. А. Гогенко

EXTERIOR VIEWS OF SECTIONS OF MAIN BUILDING OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

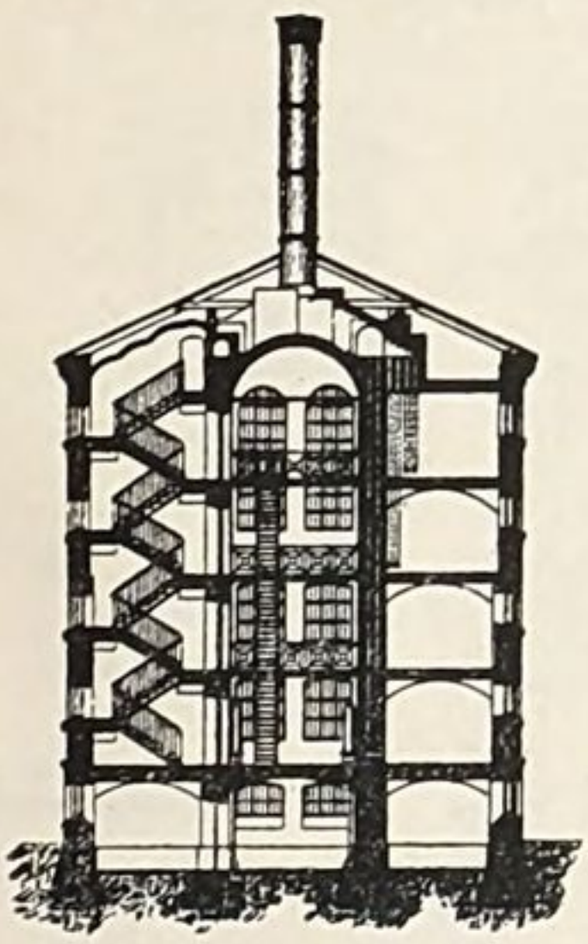
ПРОЕКТЪ ТЮРЬМЫ НА 1200 АРЕСТАНТОВЪ

въ С:Петербургѣ

PROJET D'UNE PRISON POUR 1200 DETENUS

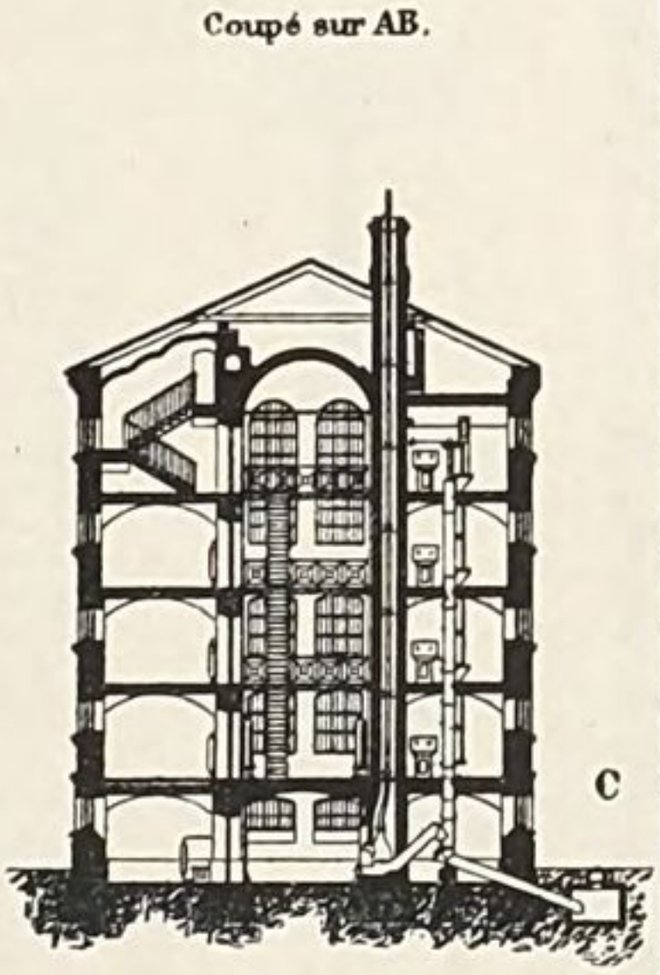
à S.Petersbourg

Разрѣзъ по CD. Coupé sur CD

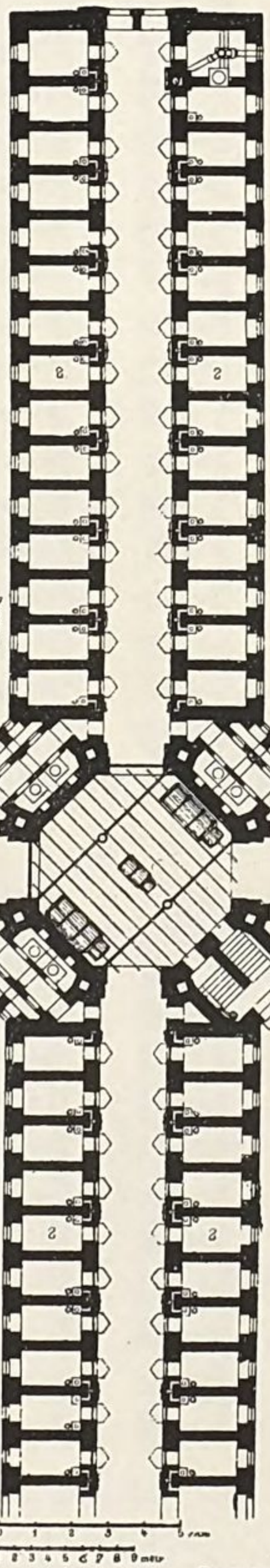


Разрѣзъ по AB.

Coupé sur AB.



A



B.

C

D.

План подвала Корпуса I^го и II^го

Plan du cellier du bât.I^er et II^me

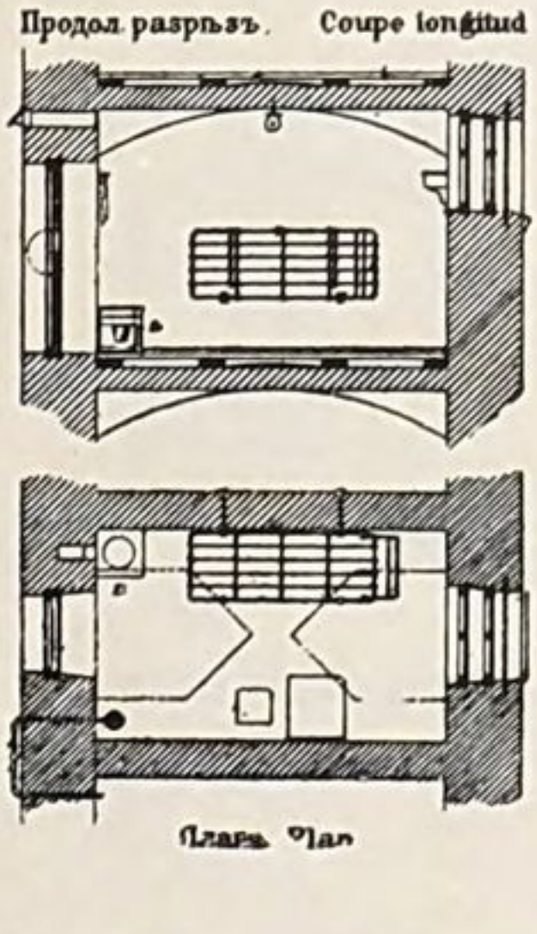
M

N

Одиночная Камера.

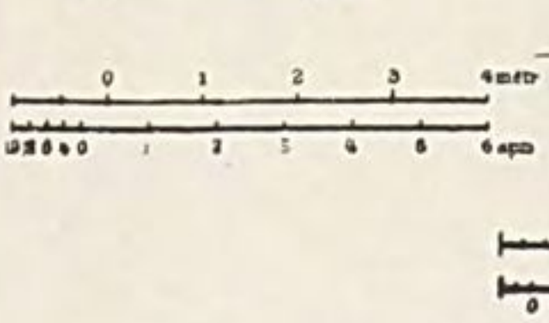
Une Cellule

Продол. разрѣзъ. Coupe longitud



Поперечъ разрѣзъ.

Coupe transv.



Планъ Plan

Проэкт Арх. А. Гоницкаго

PLAN OF BASEMENT OF PART OF MAIN BUILDING OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

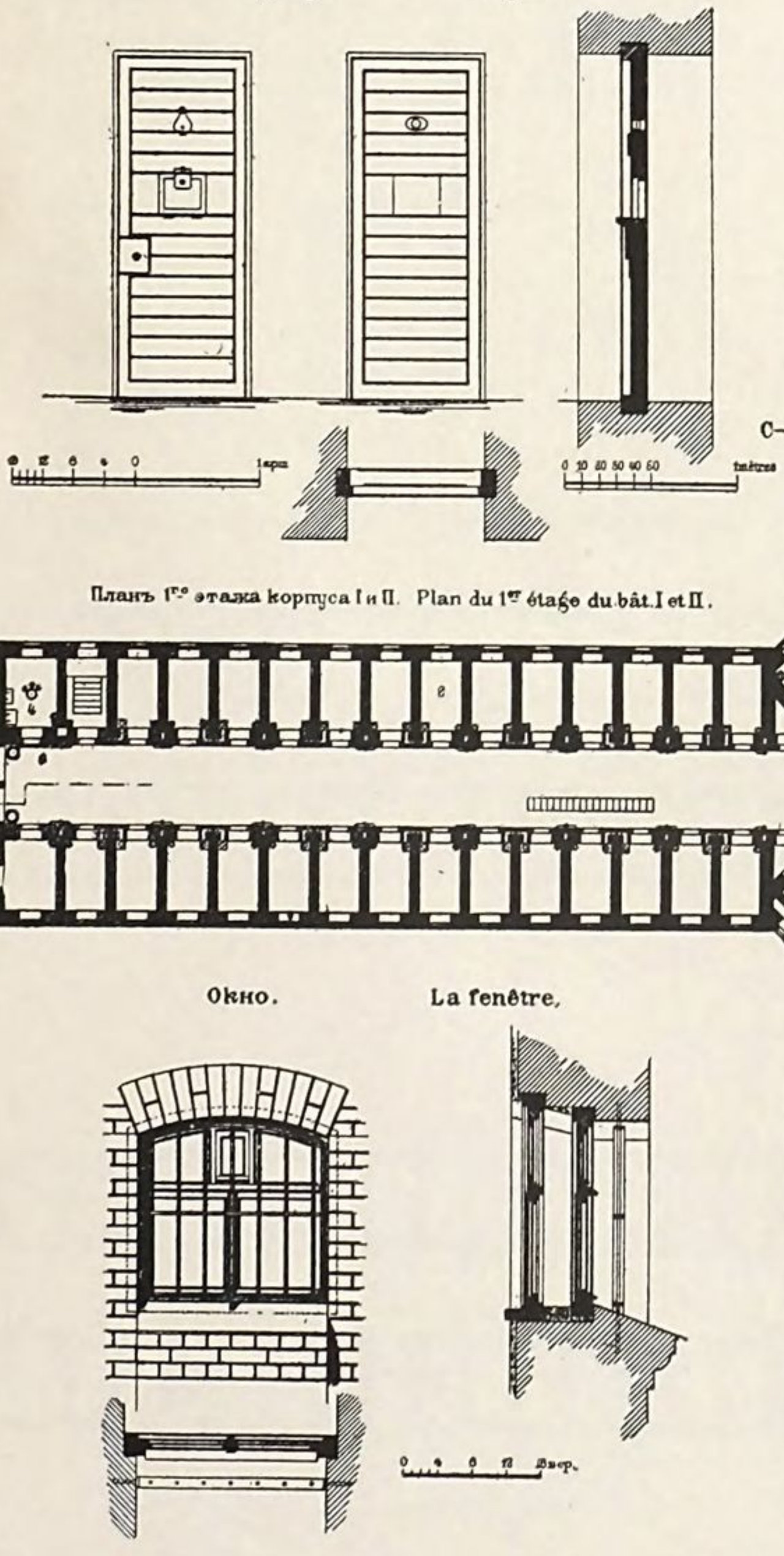
ПРОЕКТЪ ТЮРЬМЫ НА 1200 АРЕСТАНТОВЪ

въ С.Петербургѣ

PROJET D'UNE PRISON POUR 1200 DÉTENUS

à S.Petersbourg.

Дверь. La porte.



План 1го этажа корпуса I и II. Plan du 1er étage du bât. I et II.

Окно. La fenêtre.

Съ 4 до Кастеллу В С п. №22 Ст 6

Проектир. арх. А. Томишко

PLAN OF FIRST STORY OF PART OF MAIN BUILDING OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

ПРОЕКТЪ ТЮРЬМЫ НА 1200 АРЕСТАНТОВЪ

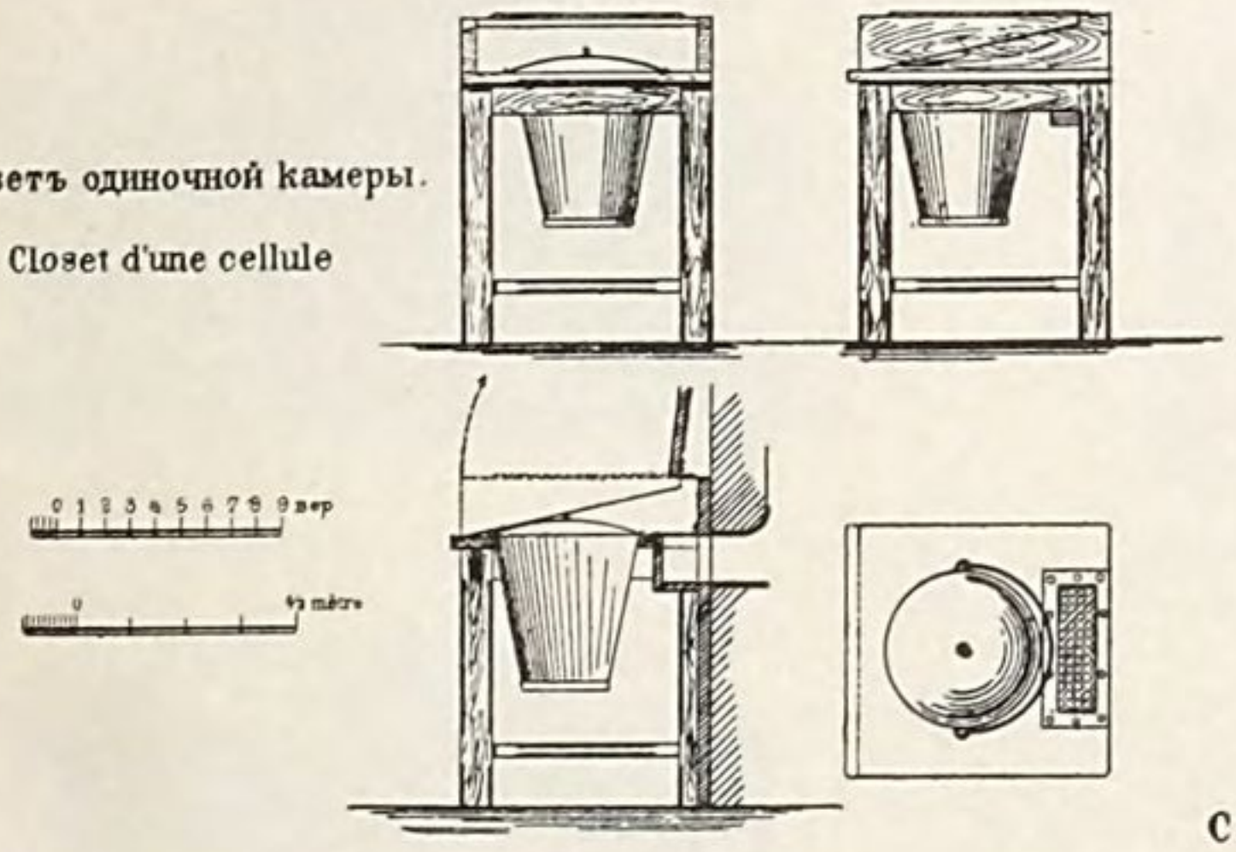
въ С:Петербургѣ

PROJET D'UNE PRISON POUR 1200 DETENUS

à S:Petersbourg.

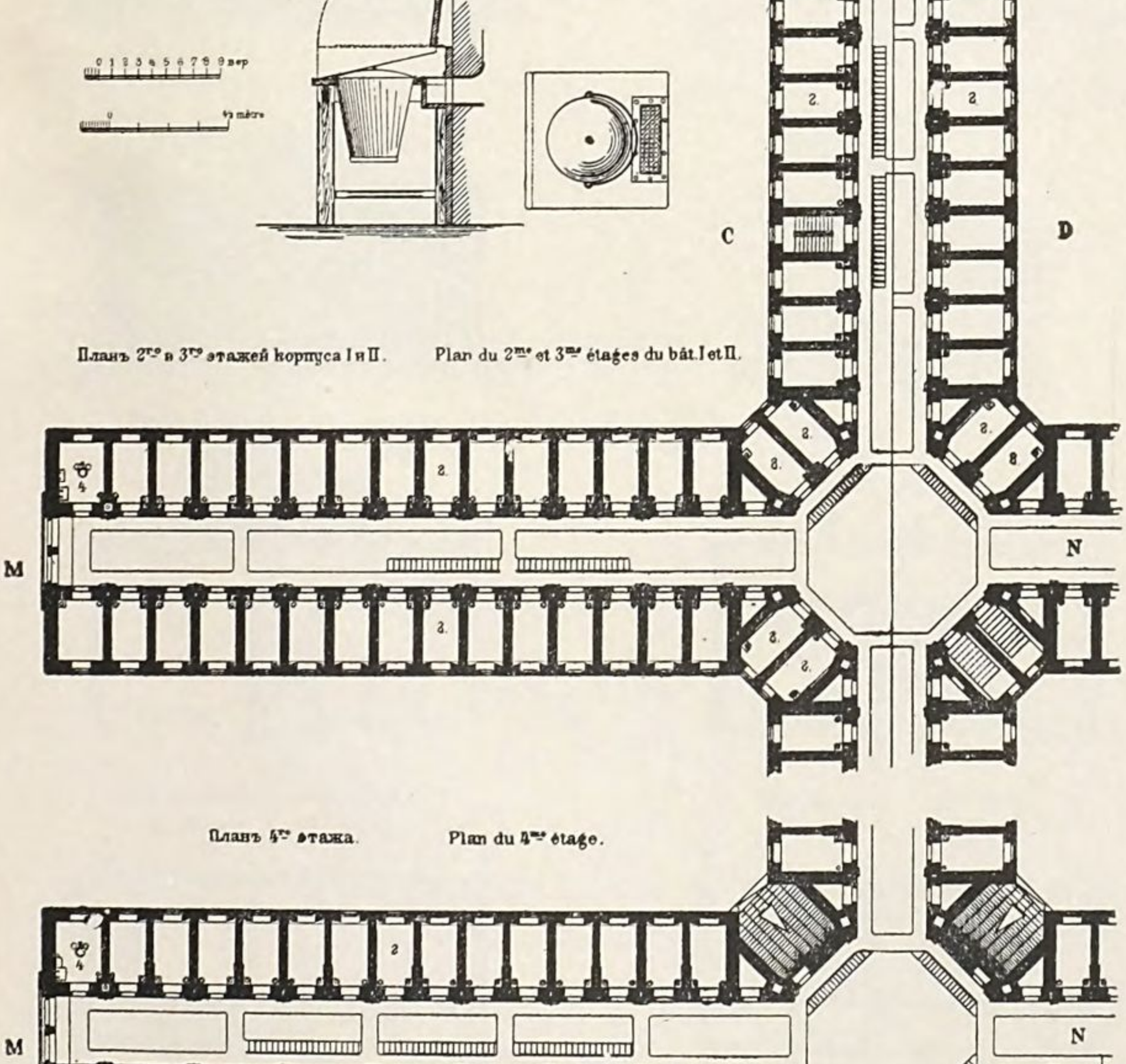
Клозетъ одиночной камеры.

Closet d'une cellule



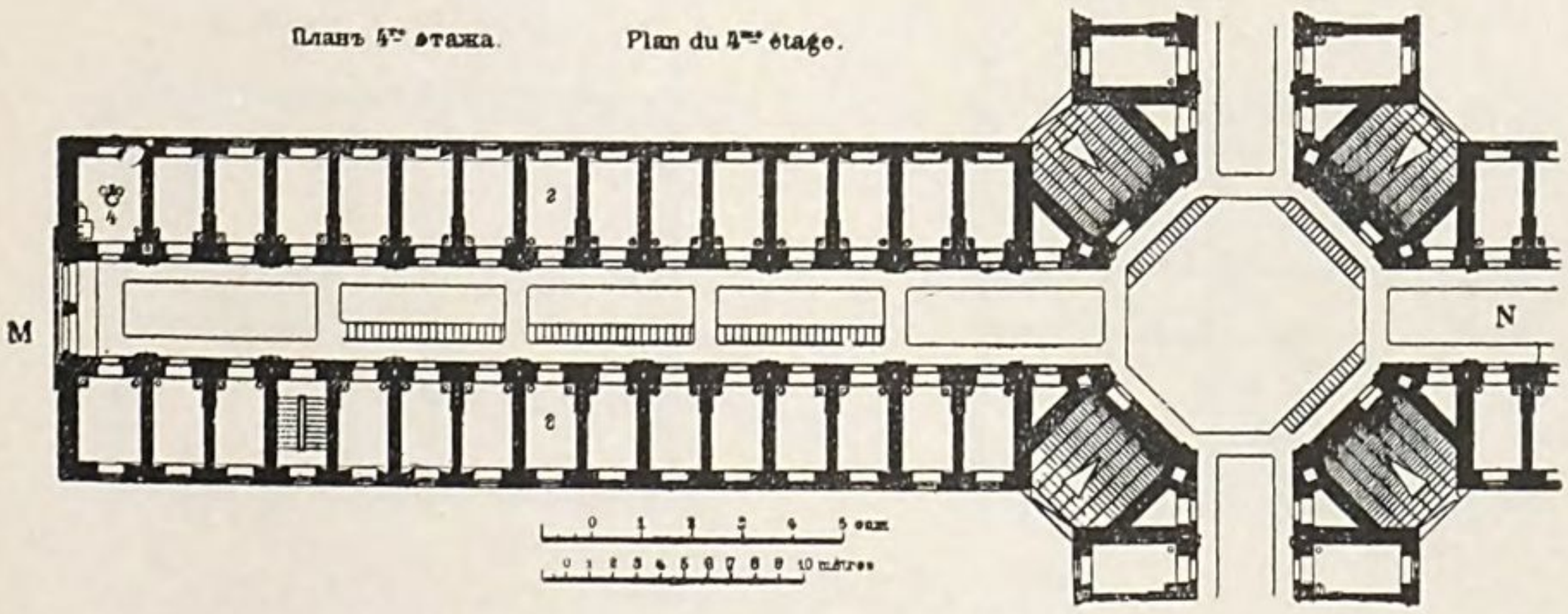
Планъ 2го и 3го этажей корпуса I и II.

Plan du 2me et 3me étages du bât. I et II.



Планъ 4го этажа.

Plan du 4me étage.



Зем. и ж. Костелло Вып. 4 № 42 СПБ

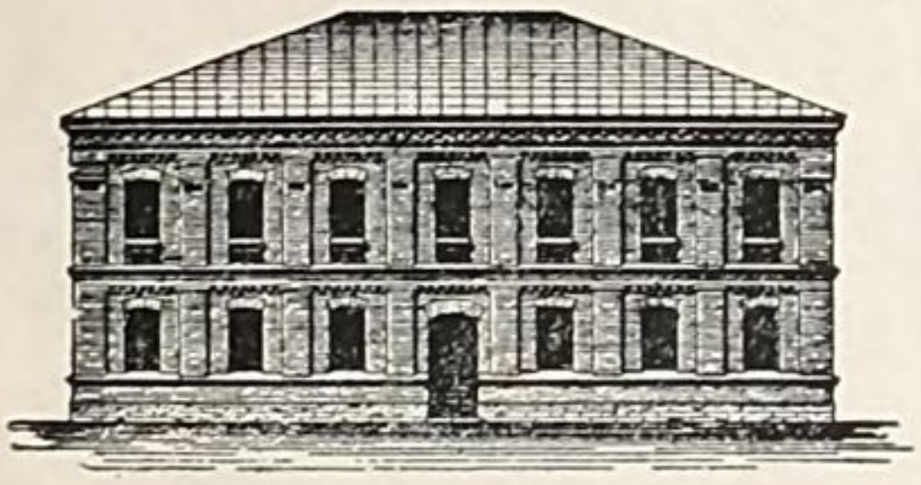
Проект Арх. А. Томишко

PLANS OF THE SECOND, THIRD, AND FOURTH STORIES OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

ПРОЕКТЪ ТЮРЬМЫ НА 1200 АРЕСТАНТОВЪ

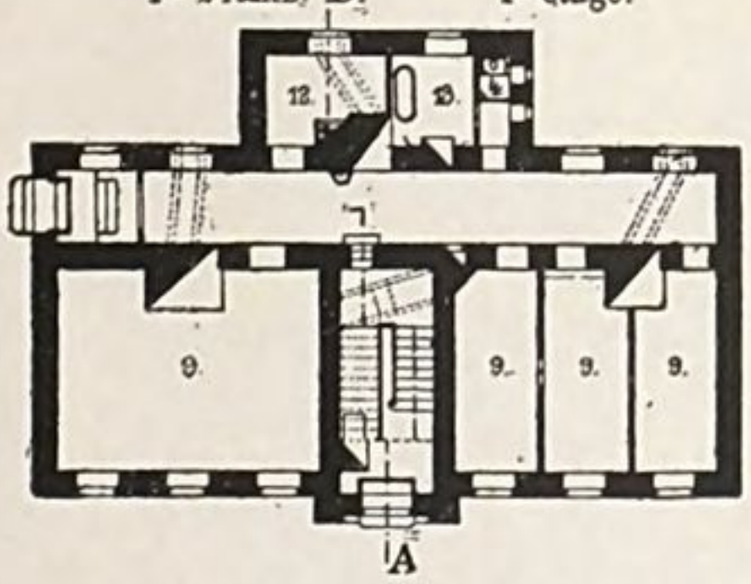
въ С:Петербургѣ.

Фасадъ зданія L. Façade du bât.L.

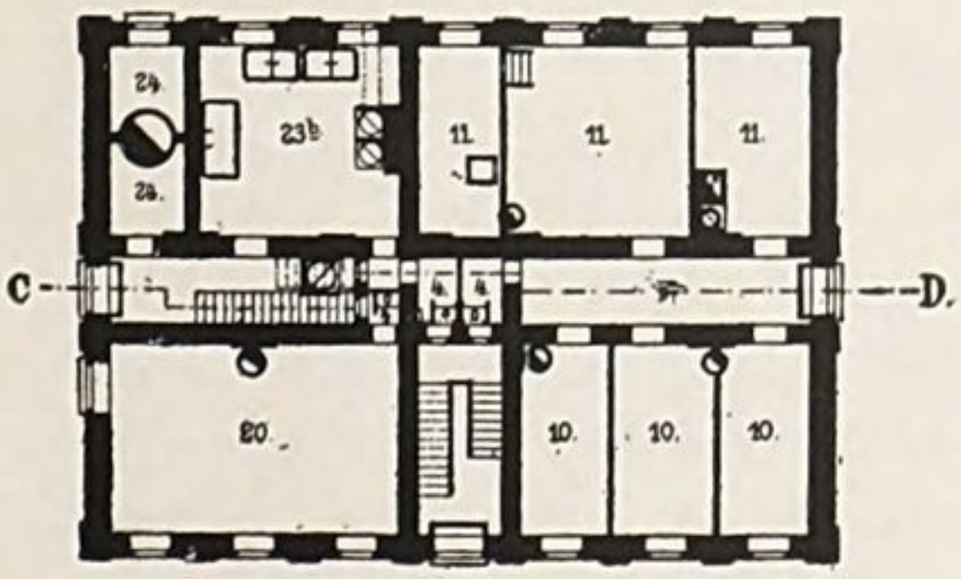


Фасадъ зданія M. Façade du bât M

Планъ зданія M. Plan du bât.M.
1-ый этажъ. 1er étage.



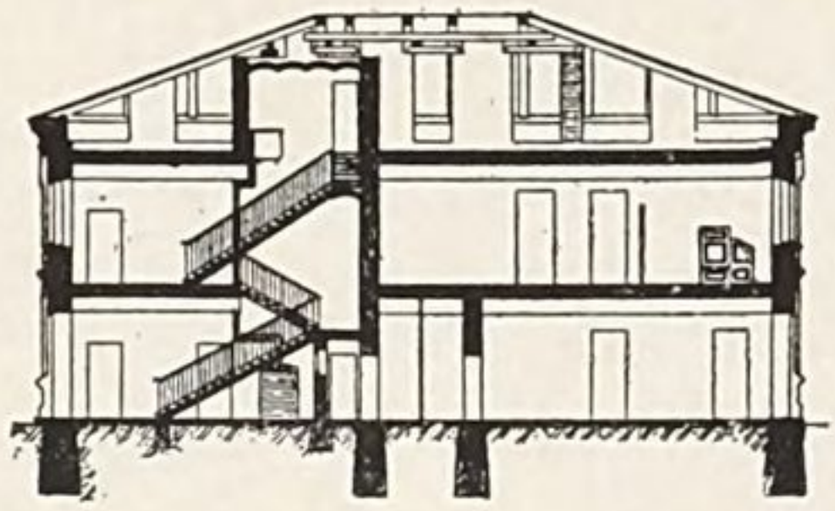
Планъ зданія L. Plan du bât.L.
1-ый этажъ. 1er étage.



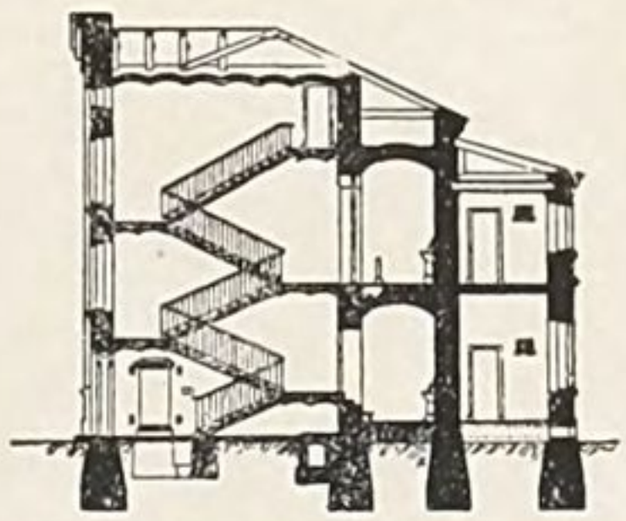
PROJET D'UNE PRISON POUR 1200 DÉTENUS

à S:Petersbourg.

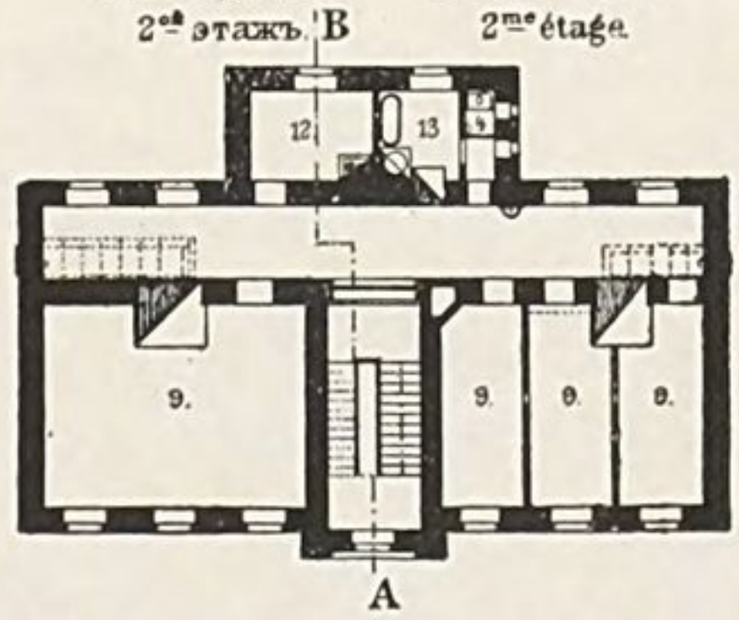
Разрѣзъ зданія L по CD. Coupé du bât.L sur CD.



Разрѣзъ зданія M по AB. Coupé du bât.M sur AB.



Планъ зданія M. Plan du bât M.
2-ой этажъ. 2me étage.



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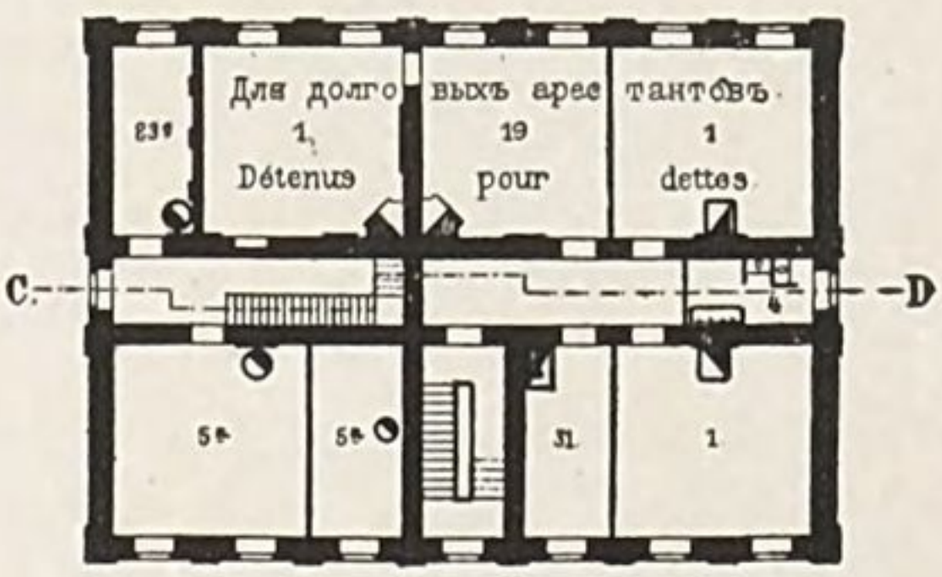
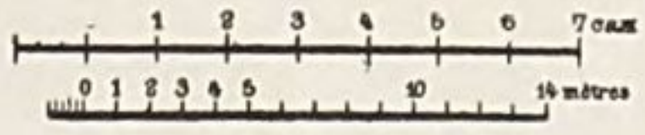
2-ой этажъ. 2me étage.





Печ. Кѣдо Кастелли В.О. 11 л. №22 С.П.Б.

Гелиогравюра Ф.А. Хохлатовой С.П.Б.

Проект Арх. А. Томишко

PLANS OF TWO-STORY PARTS OF THE VIBORG PRISON.

MR. KOMORSKY, INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF THE PRISONS OF SIBERIA, INTERVIEWED IN PARIS, NOVEMBER, 1890.

While in St. Petersburg in June last as a delegate to the International Prison Congress from the United States I often met Mr. Demetrius Komorsky, the inspector-general of prisons in Siberia and of transportation and the commissary-general of the International Prison Exposition. Large credit is due him for the success of the exposition; his presence in the deliberations of the congress, and the actual part he took in the social features at the great banquets, on excursions, etc., added very much to the interest and pleasure as well as the comfort of the delegates.

Since the session of the congress he has visited France, and on the 24th day of November last attended the meeting of the Société Générale des Prisons, where he was called to speak on the subject of Russian transportation. It should be borne in mind that France has for many years transported prisoners to New Caledonia, and that French sympathies, to some extent, are consequently with the Russians in respect to the exile system.

Count Le Courbe, after some opening remarks, introduced Mr. Komorsky as follows:

Mr. PRESIDENT: I desire permission to present our thanks to Mr. Komorsky, inspector-general of prisons and transportation in Siberia, who is now present, for the kindness in which he has responded to our request to inform us upon the subject of transportation and upon Siberia, with which he is so well acquainted, giving us not a lecture but a conversation on this new subject.

I desire also, gentlemen, in your name and especially in the name of all Frenchmen who had the pleasure to know him in St. Petersburg, to congratulate him upon the decoration presented to him by the French Government, which could not have been more merited, and to assure him of our best wishes and of our appreciation of the care and kindness of which all were the object so far from our own country.

The PRESIDENT (Mr. Petit, councilor, etc.) said: Our council of direction also desires to say to you that it considered it to be its duty to profit by the presence of Mr. Komorsky in Paris, and has requested him to give us a conversation on Siberia, and upon the effects of transportation.

Mr. KOMORSKY. I am not in a condition to give a continuous lecture on account of my limited knowledge of the French language, and for the reason that I have not had sufficient time to prepare myself for the treatment of one of the most serious questions before so learned a society as yours. I am here at the request of the council of direction of the Société Générale des Prisons to give information upon transportation in Siberia. I shall then be happy to reply to all questions you wish to propose.

To enter on the subject in the most profitable manner, permit me at first to give you a geographical sketch of Siberia. Siberia, that is to say, the Asiatic portion of the Russian Empire, is divided for administrative purposes into twelve governments or provinces, which form Eastern Siberia, Central Siberia, and the provinces of the Amour River. The Russian penal code makes a precise distinction between criminal and correctional punishments. The criminal punishments are followed by the deprivation of common rights, the right of property, the right of family, and the right of condition. The wife of the condemned criminal has the right to a divorce, and the heirs inherit all property after sentence. This is civil death.

Correctional punishments do not have this effect. They are inflicted by confinement in prisons and correctional establishments similar to the places of confinement in France.

The punishments which are followed by civil death are included in two classes: transportation, properly called, that is to say, first, the transfer of convicts to Siberia with hard labor for a term or for life, and, secondly, the transfer of convicts to Central Siberia without obligatory labor. In the provinces of the Amour River, where transportation is centralized, we have only convicts condemned to forced labor, and those who have completed their punishment who remain there as colonists; that is to say, those who go from the first class into the second.

Eastern Central Siberia is for the second class of convicts which are transported. This transportation should not be confounded with that which exists in France. It is applied to criminals at common law, and consists in exile without forced labor, but a change of residence is prohibited.

In the provinces of Eastern Siberia, which reach to the Ural Monntains, transportation is concentrated. But this punishment is not pronounced, as in France, by the courts. In Russia it is applied by the councils of the communes which form a fiscal union. Thus when a member of the rural commune has been condemned to undergo a correctional punishment he is placed at the disposition of the commune, which decides whether it will retake him or exile him. In the latter case he is transported to a province in Eastern Siberia for 5 years. At the end of that time he has the right to seek permission from any commune to return, and, if granted, to reënter Russia. But frequently

he prefers to remain in Eastern Siberia, because the country is very rich and agriculture is extensive. This is one of the most important features of colonization in the provinces.

Transportation has existed in Siberia nearly 150 years. At first those who had been condemned for capital offenses were pardoned and sent there, and then they transported those condemned to hard labor, who went with their families after having undergone punishment with labor in European Russia. This transportation took place principally in the province of Transbaikal, because there were lands there very rich in silver mines. Later, gold mines were discovered. This is ancient Dahouria, which forms a part of the steppes of Mongolia, and whose population formerly consisted of Bouriates, a nomadic race which occupied itself neither with work in the mines nor with agriculture.

When, in 1689, the province of Dahouria, after a treaty with China, became a part of the Russian Empire, they began to work in the mines. Some Greeks sent especially by Peter the Great had established these works, and as there were not enough workmen they sent from time to time some peasants and convicts, seeking in that way to colonize the country for the purpose of seriously organizing the work of the mines. This is the way in which transportation was introduced into the legislation of the Empire.

But as the object of this transportation was only the development of the mines, it had not a special prison administrative character. Until 1869 the convicts were subject to the mining laws. They considered these individuals as persons obliged to work; they wished that they might labor for their own profit; they set at liberty those who had lost their strength, and they occupied themselves very little with penitentiary questions. In 1869 the prison administration was organized, but it met with a succession of difficulties which formerly were not presented. The first of these difficulties was the insufficiency of buildings for the detention of criminals, who under the mining administration were nearly all in liberation. To evade the incumbrance of prisons it was thought that the island of Saghalien, situated at the extreme east of Siberia, at the mouth of the Amour River, was well situated to be specially occupied by those condemned to hard labor without the necessity of confining them. But as this island belonged in common to Russia and Japan, it was not until the complete cession in 1875 that the Russian Government was able to take the necessary measures to organize a penal colonization in the island and to establish there a penitentiary administration.

In 1884 this administration was fully installed. The island of Saghalien represents now a province under a special governor, who attends exclusively to the administration general of prisons.

We have not in Saghalien many liberated colonists, and consequently we can use the island specially for penal colonization.

After the expiration of their imprisonment the convicts become trans-

ported colonists. They continue to receive their food rations for two years, clothing for the same time, about two and one-half acres of improved land, necessary farming tools, sometimes some cattle, that is to say, a cow and a horse when they can be procured.

Mr. JOLY. In Saghalien have you only a few discharged prisoners who are free colonists?

Mr. KOMORSKY. According to the statistics for the last year we have 3,200.

The PRESIDENT. How many are there under punishment?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Nearly 6,000.

The PRESIDENT. And in the rest of Siberia?

Mr. KOMORSKY. At hard labor at Nertschinsk we have 3,500 convicts and a great number of discharged convicts who are dispersed in the villages of Transbaikal. They live by the products of their labor, and are only obliged to procure a passport on a change of their residence. At the end of six years the exiled colonists have the right to have a passport authorizing them to travel anywhere in Siberia.

The PRESIDENT. To go out of it?

Mr. KOMORSKY. They must have a pardon to return to Europe. In Siberia, after ten years, they pass from the condition of transported colonists to the state of free colonists. They have the right to engage in commerce and in industrial pursuits; they are entirely free, passing fully from the prison control, and are no longer subject to the special provisions of the transportation code.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Does the working of the land support them, or is it necessary for the Government to aid them?

Mr. KOMORSKY. In the provinces of Transbaikal mining prevails, above all the washing of gold; the laborers are there in demand. The exiles have always the opportunity to work in the mines and to earn their living.

The island of Saghalien, as has been equally remarked in Guinea, has precisely the fault of not being able to furnish labor for all the discharged. We rejoice when, after having received the refuse of society, we succeed in having 20 to 40 per cent. of these men who, after their discharge, become farmers, honestly gaining their bread. There are even those who become rich, and occupy themselves in commerce and in industrial pursuits. As to those who are not capable of working on their own account, they are hired by the colonists. Sometimes the administration is obliged to come to their aid.

Mr. JOLY. Are there any women transported?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Yes; from 20 to 30 per cent., and it is exactly this figure we give to the number of men established more or less conveniently; that is to say, having their support.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Then are there marriages?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Yes; they are authorized.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. How can they marry since they are struck with civil death.

Mr. KOMORSKY. After condemnation, they regain little by little their civil rights, and at the expiration of their sentence they become more or less citizens. However, they can never recover their privileges of former condition. They never regain nobility nor the property which passed to their heirs.

The important point for the convict is the consent of the wife to follow him to Siberia. After the condemnation the wife is asked if she consents to accompany her husband to the Island of Saghalien. If she accepts, all the family rights of the condemned are retained and his wife cannot thereafter leave him without his consent.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. If she refuses?

Mr. KOMORSKY. If she refuses she has the right to a divorce.

The Pastor ARBOUX. Is transportation obligatory for women, or only for men?

Mr. KOMORSKY. All women sentenced to forced labor have been sent to Saghalien since 1883, if the condition of their health permitted.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. What is the climate of the island?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The climate is moderate, owing to the proximity of the sea; more moderate than the provinces on the coast. Yet it is more rude than the climate in the same latitude in Europe.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Is the cultivation of the ground possible?

Mr. KOMORSKY. All cereals are harvested.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Is wheat also raised there?

Mr. KOMORSKY. All kinds of wheat; March wheat and fall wheat. I have here some statistics which show the quantity of land cultivated. In 1885, there were only 871 hectares (a hectare is about 2½ acres) cleared and cultivated; in 1890, there were 3,000 hectares more. They cultivate also wheat, barley, and potatoes, the latter being produced in large quantities.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. How are the convicts transported; by land?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Always by the sea, embarking them at Odessa. They use boats of the volunteer fleet. From Odessa they pass through the Suez Canal and around Asia.

Mr. JOLY. How many free colonists have you in Saghalien?

Mr. KOMORSKY. There are scarcely any; only some merchants who go there to employ the convicts. Besides these there are some officers and soldiers.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Are there any Japanese?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The Japanese have abandoned the island; there are yet a small number of indigent nomads who live by hunting and fishing.

Mr. GRIPON. While the husband is undergoing punishment in Saghalien, what is the situation of the wife who has accepted transportation with him?

Mr. KOMORSKY. According to law, the man who is condemned to

hard labor must undergo one-third of his punishment in prison, but the island of Saghalien is considered as a prison surrounded by floating walls, so that each prisoner brought from Russia is set at liberty in Saghalien and his punishment consists only in obligatory work. He has the right to construct a small house, to improve a small tract of land and to work it on his own account. The convict receives a ration; and besides this, the family receives a monthly payment for the support of the children. There is nothing given to the women who have no children, but each child has the right to nearly 3 rubles a month, that is to say, $1.80 to $2 for its support. The general mortality is very limited; it may be estimated at $1\frac{1}{4}$ in 100 per annum.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Have you any escapes?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The escapes even in the island, reach 5 per cent. per annum, but the runaways are always obliged to return, and the escapes from the island are exceptional.

Mr. LE COURBE. Is it true that the fugitives who arrive at the Chinese frontier are returned by the Chinese who demand for them an increase of penalty for having polluted the Chinese soil?

Mr. KOMORSKY. That is not true, for the good reason that there are scarcely any Chinese on the frontier, which is much more of a desert than ours. There are there some wandering Mongolians named Boariotes, subject to Russia, who willingly pursue deserters, for they have three rubles for their arrest.

The Chinese prefer to kill the fugitive rather than to make for three rubles the voyage from Nertschinsk, that is to say at least 125 miles.

Mr. JOLY. What appear to be the relations between the discharged prisoners and the people?

Mr. KOMORSKY. For the seven years I have been in Siberia I have observed that their relations at first are usually sympathetic, that then they become a little strained, and that finally, with the increase of the free population, there arises a certain hostility. When the free population increases and as the free workmen seek for occupation, they naturally find themselves in competition with the exiles who are remunerated less than they are. It is an economic question.

In the Island of Saghalien and in the provinces of the Amour River, they gladly receive as laborers not only the discharged, but the fugitives.

Mr. JOLY. It is a question of supply and demand.

Mr. KOMORSKY. In the province of Transbaïkal there is already discontent from receiving discharged prisoners. Central Siberia raises its voice on this subject and petitions are addressed to the governors of the provinces.

Mr. JOLY. Is it not for cause that transportation, properly called, has been to a great extent abandoned?

Mr. KOMORSKY. You speak of a projected law on transportation.

As for transportation, properly called, it will continue in the provinces of the Amour River.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Is the island of Saghalien large?

Mr. KOMORSKY. It has 68,000 square kilometres; that is to say, it is about the size of Greece or Bulgaria. It is crossed by mountain ranges which attain an elevation of 200 to 300 metres. The highest mountain is 400 metres high, but there are no glaciers.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. When a discharged convict commits a crime or a misdemeanor, by whom is he tried, by the civil or military authority?

Mr. KOMORSKY. He is tried by the civil authority.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Even in the island?

Mr. KOMORSKY. For small offenses against the regulations of the prison he is judged by the director of the prison. For those misdemeanors within the jurisdiction of the court in the first instance he is judged by a court which corresponds to the correctional tribunal of France and which is composed of the chief of the district and of two members. The sentence is always confirmed by the governor of the island.

For crimes, properly called, the convict is judged by a court. In Siberia we do not have juries, but we have a court composed of magistrates of the chief places of the provinces of the Amour River, at Kabarofka.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Upon the continent?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Yes. The accused is not sent there; the proceedings are by correspondence.

The number of crimes committed by convicts in Saghalien from 1885 to 1888 is 108, which gives an average of 37 crimes per year. There have been 28 murders, 5 attempts to murder, 5 blows and wounds, 24 cases of grand and petit larceny, and 46 cases of misdemeanor. These figures do not include light violations corrected by the prison administration.

There are few cases of relapse compared to the whole number of exiles. In general, the conduct of the exile is good when free colonization is limited.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Is there an important military force to guard the island?

Mr. KOMORSKY. There are four companies which contain in all 960 soldiers. But as we do not have a sufficient number of guards we are obliged to take men from the companies to serve as guards. These men then receive half of the indemnity paid to the guards. By this fact the armed force, properly so called, is diminished nearly to 200.

Nevertheless there is little to fear from revolts, for there is furnished to every prisoner the possibility of labor and a return to civil life. The individual interest of the prisoners avoids conflicts, and there is no fear from association and conspiracies which exist in prisons and which always must be combated.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Are there any precautions taken to prevent the sale of intoxicating liquors?

Mr. KOMORSKY. This is the principal war we have to wage. Communication with the island is very rare, yet at least fifteen ships come during the summer to the principal port. These vessels are watched very rigorously with reference to alcohol.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Then the sale is prohibited.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Absolutely. Not only the convicts but even the guards and the minor employés have no right to purchase alcohol without the authority of the government. It is only by this authority that alcohol can be taken from the government warehouses, and it is distributed with caution. Alcohol is consequently very rare, and, as contraband, costs sometimes 8 rubles per bottle.

The PRESIDENT. Is there much labor obtained from the prisoners and are the expenses for transportation burdensome in Russia?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The expenses are not high. The establishment costs almost nothing and there are many workmen. What costs is the nails, the iron, the glass, etc. There are at this time forty villages which have been built on the island of Saghalien and which have cost the government something. These villages increase so rapidly that they are often built before the government has notice of their construction.

The maintenance in the island of Saghalien, in the mean time, is a little more expensive to the state, because the latter, as I have said, is obliged to contribute during at least two years to the support of discharged convicts, while there is no such obligation concerning those sentenced to forced labor at Nertschinsk.

Mr. BOURNAT. You have spoken of administrative punishments. What have you now in use? Are there any corporal punishments?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The director has the right to inflict 30 blows with the rod. There are no other corporal punishments he can inflict. The knout ceased to exist in Russia nearly a hundred years ago. There is another instrument which recalls the "cat" in use in the English fleet for the sailors. On judgment confirmed by the governor of the island, 30 blows can be given. On sentence pronounced by the court in case of relapse in crime the number of blows can be increased to 100.

Personally I am not an advocate of this punishment. At the same time I have been obliged to permit it in certain cases. In reality, if instead of a punishment of 30 blows of the rod a man is condemned to prison for 3 or 6 months, who has several children, the latter deprived of their father might perish with poverty and hunger. Yet crime must be punished. Prisoners sometimes request punishment by the rod in preference to the prison.

In Siberia they can not be cruel to prisoners. A director who was cruel to the convicts would be murdered in three days. This is why, as inspector-general, I am obliged sometimes to censure directors for their lack of severity. They reply to me: "We are surrounded by

convicts. What would you have us do?" During my last sojourn in the island I had four convicts in my house; all my servants were convicts. In this condition one could not, without danger, permit himself to be severe.

Mr. L. HERBETTE. Besides, I believe I am authorized to say that the question of corporal punishment had been incidentally announced at the congress of St. Petersburg by persons who were neither French nor Russian. I recall that I had occasion to say to those who wished to raise this question, that we would be well satisfied not to use corporal punishment, but if the good souls who are moved with pity for what transpires in Siberia would regard themselves they would see some phenomena stranger than the rod. This question has not been raised.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Punishment is a question of custom and of habits. There are cases in which I have found it useful. Thus, when a braggart spoke to a chief impertinently, in the presence of other convicts, it was necessary to punish him; not to injure him, but to remove from him the halo which the act gave him when his comrades are about him. It is a more serious case when one prisoner commits a misdemeanor on another prisoner. In this case imprisonment is not considered a punishment; it is necessary to administer a corporal punishment in order that the prisoner, the victim of the misdemeanor, will abandon all idea of personal vengeance.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. Are crimes committed on the guards frequently?

Mr. KOMORSKY. During the past 7 years there have been two crimes and one offense of importance outside of the island of Saghalien. In the island a director has been assassinated and two guards. The last two crimes were tried by court-martial.

Mr. BOULLAIRE. What has been the punishment for these special crimes?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Hanging for the murderers. In the case of insult to the guard he was acquitted, because the guard in this case was himself guilty of misconduct.

In extraordinary cases the governor-general of the provinces of the Amour River has a special right, a right which is given him by the Emperor, to name a council of war. There have been four or five such cases during the past 7 years.

Mr. BOURNAT. Under what circumstances does banishment take place?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Six months before the expiration of the sentence of a prisoner the opinion of the commune is requested and it has the right to accept or reject the prisoner.

Mr. BOURNAT. Is it at the expense of the state that the convict is sent to Siberia?

Mr. KOMORSKY. If he is refused he is sent into the provinces of eastern Siberia and he is there installed at the expense of the state. Your question reminds me that there is a law being considered tending to make the communes pay the expenses of banishment.

Mr. BOURNAT. Do many communes accept their erring members?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The most of them do.

Mr. JOLY. It was told us in Russia that nearly 5 per cent. of the discharged were rejected by the commune.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Perhaps even more.

Mr. BOURNAT. Is this acceptance by the commune serious, or is it only a favor on the part of the chief of the commune, who, to exempt the convict from Siberia, accepts him in order to release him immediately?

Mr. KOMORSKY. No; this question is seriously deliberated in the commune, which knows very well who are the professional criminals who have done so much injury to the public, and those who, however faulty, are not hardened criminals. It is not a communal council, but it is all the commune which pronounces judgment.

Mr. BOURNAT. Is all the commune called to vote?

Mr. KOMORSKY. A report of the discussion is prepared and it is necessary that there should be two thirds of the vote to exile the prisoner.

Mr. DUBOIS. To what treatment are the exiles subjected?

Mr. KOMORSKY. They are obliged to remain 5 years in the district designated for them. It is necessary for you to understand the word district, for there are some districts there greater than one-half of France.

Mr. DUBOIS. What are their means of existence?

Mr. KOMORSKY. These provinces are very rich and here is an example: A Russian merchant engaged in the wheat trade between eastern Siberia and England had two ships wrecked at the mouth of the river Ob. He sent there a third, satisfied that if this vessel reached England the benefits he would receive would pay him for the ships and cargoes lost. There is no country more fertile than eastern Siberia. One can get in this country nearly 32 pounds of wheat for about 12 cents. If you ask for 10 cents worth of vegetables they bring you a great basket full.

Mr. DUBOIS. Is banishment applicable to women and are they consulted?

Mr. KOMORSKY. It applies according to law, but it is rarely put in practice because the communes seldom decline to accept them.

The PRESIDENT. What is the principal form of hard labor in the island of Saghalien?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The work of the convicts is performed in the open air. They are engaged principally in the establishment of roads, in the improvement of land, the drainage of the soil, and the construction of buildings. Besides this we have coal mines, but these mines are operated by only 400 men, who have been guilty of capital crimes or are recidivists.

The PRESIDENT. If they refuse to work how are they compelled?

Mr. KOMORSKY. They are handcuffed and are obliged to work in

prison guarded by soldiers. The work is done under these conditions by groups of 5 to 12 convicts who are obliged to do a certain task. In this way if any convict does not wish to work the others compel him to, so that all may not be punished.

Mr. BOGELOT. Is the responsibility collective?

Mr. KOMORSKY. I have been obliged to use this method in 1888 and in 1889, this collective responsibility in the hard-labor forces of Nertchinsk for the men who were on conditional discharge. I have secured also a decrease of escapes. The latter, which rose in 1886 to 24 per 100 and in 1887 to 31 per 100, fell in 1888 to 12 per 100. You can judge that this system has given efficient results.

Mr. DUBOIS. Is the necessary work for the support of the convicts done by transported exiles?

Mr. KOMORSKY. Not only the necessary work for the support of the convicts, but even the necessary work for the support of the employés of the administration. We are obliged, wanting subordinate employés, to have recourse, even in the offices, to convicts to do the writing. I consider that the punishment of labor consists in the quantity, and not in the quality. One can work in the mines two hours each day and be more free than in working in an office during twelve hours.

Mr. LE COURBE. Mr. Komorsky, will you tell us whether the work in the mines, which seems to us so fearful at a distance, is as hard and terrible as generally considered?

Mr. KOMORSKY. That depends upon the circumstances in which it is accomplished. At this time the work in the mines of Siberia is not as hard as other labor because the conditions are very good. The coal mines are not under the surface. They are in the mountains, so that they always have fresh air and there are no explosions to fear. The coal is lowered, not raised, and this is much easier. Then it depends on the quantity of the work, and not on the quality. The mining district of Nertchinsk—for it is not the prison administration which sets the tasks—formerly gave such little ones that in two hours they were finished.

Three years ago, at these same mines of Nertchinsk, where forced labor prevails, I have been obliged to interfere because the convicts sometimes earn 10 kopecks for the state and 50 for themselves by their extra labor. The object was to make them earn 30 kopecks for the state and as much for themselves. The extra work is done by the prisoners out on conditional liberation, who, after having completed their task, are free to work in the fields or to continue their work in the same or a neighboring mine.

Mr. DUBOIS. Do a part of these mines belong to private parties?

Mr. KOMORSKY. These mines belong especially to the imperial court, which rents certain gold mines to individuals.

Mr. DUBOIS. Do private parties pay more than the state for miners' labor?

Mr. KOMORSKY. The same is paid by each. If the administration of mines pay less, no one will dare work for it. The pay is estimated according to the weight of the metal, whether the work has been done by a free workman or by a convict. The convicts always receive less than the others, because they work less as a general rule. In regard to discharged prisoners, we give them a lighter task so they may have more time to work for themselves. This is even obligatory, for the law says that with conditional liberations there should be a diminution of the task.

Mr. BOURNAT. Are all the works directed by the administration? Are there any intermediates between the administration and the prisoners to direct the work?

Mr. KOMORSKY. In the island of Saghalien there are no intermediates. The administration directs all the work and at the expense of the state. For special work we have architects and engineers, but they give their orders to directors and underdirectors of prisons, and the latter give their orders to the guards. Among the convict laborers of Nertchinsk we have no intermediate person, except an engineer of the mining prison administration, who is not attached to the prison administration and who oversees the technical features of the work.

Mr. XAVIER BLANC. You have told us that the clearing up of the lands formed a considerable part of the labors of the convicts. Can you tell us whether these improvements have resulted, as they have in the French colonies, and notably in Guiana, in developing epidemics?

Mr. KOMORSKY. In French Guiana the epidemics have been produced by the cultivation of the marshes. But our marshes are shallow; they are not deep. The island of Saghalien is in an exceptional condition. At present there are not only no epidemics, but there is not even a prevalence of the epizoöty.

Mr. LÉVEILLÉ. Russian transportation has various causes. I desire to know, if I am not indiscreet, what are the projects of reform being considered in Russia. They tell us in France, and I do not believe that it is correct, that the Russian Government wishes to abolish transportation.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Not only has there never been such a question, but I suppose that transportation could even be increased; that is to say, that the number of sentences to hard labor could be enlarged. The question of abolition relates rather to that of the exile for colonization, without obligatory labor for criminal punishment. In this way convicts would be classified between imprisonment and transportation properly called.

Mr. JOLY. And centralized in the island of Saghalien?

Mr. KOMORSKY. In the island of Saghalien and at Nertchinsk; for the mining question is very serious, and it is necessary to bring to it the labor of convicts; that is to say, of obligatory labor.

Mr. LÉVEILLÉ. I desire to obtain from Mr. Komorsky a public re-

newal of the promise he made to some of us in Russia. Mr. Komorsky, who has given us very liberally, and without reservation, much information, promised me to prepare a study upon Russian transportation. I need not say to you that I eagerly accepted this offer, for Mr. Komorsky speaks excellent French and can produce a work extremely useful.

Mr. LE COURBE. So much the more now that he is our colleague.

Mr. KOMORSKY. Gentlemen, you have shown me great indulgence during the International Prison Congress and you continue it here. I thank you and now ask you to excuse me for having so long occupied your time.

The PRESIDENT. I desire, before adjournment, to express the sentiment of all present in thanking Mr. Komorsky for the information so full of interest which he has furnished us. As Mr Léveillé says, Mr. Komorsky knows his subject admirably and presents it as clearly as a Frenchman. Mr. Komorsky has given us extremely valuable information upon transportation. He has shown us how a neighboring country of ours, whose friendship at this time is the best guaranty of peace, has succeeded in organizing transportation with little expense to the state, and which produces good results in this sense, that relapse to crime is very limited and the elevation of criminals operates progressively to aid them in different standings they may obtain in Siberia.

You have, above all, been struck by what has been accomplished in this marvelous country. They tell you of villages built as by enchantment, with no cost to the state. Ah, well, if we could do something like it in New Caledonia we should esteem ourselves happy, our finances would be found improved, and the end towards which our society tends in so ardent a manner would be rapidly attained.

Mr. Louis Herbette then spoke of the great work accomplished by Mr. Komorsky in inaugurating and conducting the great International Prison Exposition, and of the hospitality of Russia for the members of the congress. The society soon after adjourned.

NOTE.—With the exception of the London Congress and the Glasgow Conference the proceedings and addresses furnishing material for this report were in the French language. It has been the aim of the writer to interpret as clearly as he could the views of the various speakers. This has often been difficult, as each one had a style and idiom peculiar to himself, and in such an international assembly often spoke in a language other than his own. That the writer has not always correctly interpreted he is fully aware.

Yet if this report shall serve to create a wider interest in the movement of the nations to make penology one of the exact sciences, he will be largely reconciled for any lack of appreciation of this effort.

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[*Whole Number* 173

BUREAU OF EDUCATION

W. T. HARRIS, *Commissioner*

CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 3, 1891.

SANITARY CONDITIONS

FOR

SCHOOLHOUSES

BY

ALBERT P. MARBLE, WORCESTER, MASS.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1891.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., Februarg 21, 1890.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith a manuscript of a circular upon the "Sanitary Condition of Schoolhouses," the preparation of which was procured by Hon. N. H. R. Dawson, lately Commissioner of Education.

The author of the circular is Dr. A. P. Marble, superintendent of the public schools of Worcester, Mass., and during the last year president of the National Education Association of the United States. Dr. Marble is a man of scientific attainments, and has for years made a study of the problem of ventilation, heating, lighting, draining, and schoolhouse construction. The value of the circular will be increased by the addition to it, in the form of an appendix, of a number of designs of school buildings of various sizes, carefully selected with a view to commodiousness, healthfulness, and economy of construction. Among these designs special attention is called to the series of nineteen plates constituting the prize designs selected and published by the State of New York in 1888. The Bureau is indebted to Hon. A. S. Draper, superintendent of public instruction of the State of New York, for permission to republish these designs, and also for the use of the electrotype plates.

The plates of a number of excellent plans have also been kindly loaned to the Bureau by Hon. J. B. Thayer, State superintendent of public instruction of Wisconsin, Mr. Jared Sanford, commissioner of schools of West Chester County, N. Y., Messrs. Isaac D. Smead & Co., Toledo, Ohio, Fuller, Warren & Co., Troy, N. Y., and the Venetian Blind Company, Burlington, Vt.

This circular will be of great use to school authorities, and can not fail to result in improving the quality and condition of schoolhouses throughout the country.

I respectfully recommend its publication at the earliest date possible.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner.

Hon. JOHN W. NOBLE,
Secretary of the Interior.

CONTENTS.

Page.

Introduction 7

I.—Ventilation and Heating.

Great need of attention to this subject 8
Conditions vary 9
Vitiated air 9
Radiant heat 11
Heating by stoves 12
Hot-air furnaces 23
The exhaust 28
Best ventilation in a closed room 34
Hot air, steam, and hot water 34
The space and amount of air per minute per pupil 36

II.—Drainage and Lavatories.

How to secure good drainage 39
The dry closet 40
The best methods of construction and arrangement of fixtures 45

III.—Lighting.

How to secure proper lighting 50
Care of the eyes 55

IV.

The growth of children as related to health and ability to study 57

V.

Conclusion 62

Appendix I.

VENTILATION OF SCHOOLHOUSES HEATED BY STOVES.

A system of ventilation for schoolhouses heated by stoves, as approved by the Massachusetts State inspection department of factories and public buildings. 67

Appendix II.

THE HYGIENIC CONSTRUCTION OF THE BRIDGEPORT HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING.

Introduction 73
Staircases 75
Hat and cloak rooms 75
Light 75
Floor, and cubic feet of space allowed each pupil 79
The water-closets and their construction 79
Heat and ventilation 82

APPENDIX III.

Page.
Extract from report of Worcester (Mass.) schools for 1889 91

APPENDIX IV.

PLANS AND SPECIFICATIONS OF SCHOOLHOUSES.

Extract from a circular issued in 1881 by State Superintendent William C. Whitford, of Wisconsin 97

APPENDIX V.

DESIGNS FOR SCHOOLHOUSES.

[Reproduction of work issued July, 1888, showing designs accepted by the department of public instruction of New York.]

Introduction 111
Schoolhouse grounds 112
School outbuildings 114
Ventilation 118
Light and eyesight 120
Blackboards 121
School desks 122
Competitive plans for schoolhouses, to illustrate Appendix V 123

SANITARY CONDITIONS FOR SCHOOLHOUSES.

INTRODUCTION.

Something like seven-eighths of all children under the age of 15 attending school are in the public schools, and the general interest taken in these schools has led to investigations respecting the healthfulness of the surroundings and buildings provided for these children, and the effect of school upon the health and growth of the pupils, and the conditions most favorable to study. For the last 20 years much attention has been given to the proper heating and ventilation of schoolhouses and of other public buildings, and very great improvements have been made. The best systems now in use are incomparably better than those in use only 10 or 12 years ago. As late as 1880, an English work by an eminent writer on school architecture advocated the warming of schoolrooms by open grates and the introduction of fresh air at the bottom of the room and its withdrawal through openings in the ceiling or near it. This method of ventilation is now universally conceded to be defective and objectionable.

The large number of children assembled in schools, the number of hours they spend together at the most impressionable period of their lives, and the necessity for healthy bodily conditions if we would secure good mental growth, all require that the best known provisions be made for their health while in school. Nor should mental growth be of less concern than physical well-being, since both have a direct influence upon morals, which is more important than either.

The subject of sanitation will here be considered under the three heads of—

I.—Ventilation and heating;
II.—Drainage and lavatories;
III.—Lighting.

I.—VENTILATION AND HEATING.

GREAT NEED OF ATTENTION TO THIS SUBJECT.

With all the attention that has been paid to ventilation, the subject has till quite recently been in its infancy, if even now it has attained anything like maturity. This fact is shown in the ill-ventilated and poorly heated halls in all parts of this country and in Europe. It appears in nearly all the costly churches, where the provision for renewal of the air is quite generally wholly insufficient and in a majority of cases not one-twentieth of what it should be. The reason that people are alive and in tolerable health is that they spend only a very small fraction of their time in these halls and churches.

Legislative halls are no better. In many State capitols and municipal council chambers large sums of money have been expended in the attempt to supply the members of these assemblies with fresh air after the buildings have been erected with a view to architectural display and with but little regard to comfort, or the best effects of light, or the proper distribution of heat and the supply of air. But most of these attempts have either failed utterly or have been only partially successful.

Notably the capitol at Washington has been subjected to numerous experiments; but thus far all have proved failures. No hall on the continent, it is probably safe to say, is filled with fouler air than the galleries of the House of Representatives near the close of an afternoon session. A person from the outside world is liable to be made sick by it in 15 minutes, and but few can stand it for more than half an hour without suffering from nausea, headache, and dizziness. And yet $100,000 or more have been expended, first and last, in seeking to remedy this evil.

Many schoolhouses are but little better; and yet most of the children live through it because they go into the open air frequently at recesses, at noon, and morning and night, and the system habituates itself to throwing off the poison inhaled with the vitiated air of the schoolroom, just as a man becomes accustomed to the nicotine poison of tobacco and the alcoholic poison of whisky, and just as the human body has the power of adapting itself to the rigor of an arctic winter, and again to the heat of a torrid summer. The Creator seems to have given us this

power of adaptation in order that the race might not become extinct while we are learning how to avail ourselves of the free pure air everywhere supplied. But it will not do to presume too long on this adaptability. The evidences of degeneracy here and there warn us that it is high time to presume no longer.

And in private houses the case is generally even worse than in schoolhouses and public halls. The safety in these houses lies in the fact that but few people generally are confined in one room. It is likely that a very large majority of private houses are heated with stoves, and that in nine-tenths of them no provision whatever is made for changing the air of the room except the occasional opening of a door or a window and the withdrawal of a very small quantity of air through the draft of the stove.

CONDITIONS VARY.

In considering what is the best means for heating and ventilating there are various conditions that must not be lost sight of. A large house heated by a furnace or by indirect steam, with a small family, is one thing. A small house heated by a stove, with a large family, is quite different. In both these the rooms, or a part of them, are occupied through the whole 24 hours. A schoolroom, on the other hand, is occupied only 5 or 6 hours in the day, but it is inhabited by a large number of children during that time. These children moreover are at the period of greatest growth. The tissues of the body are renewed rapidly, and the excretions through the skin and the exhalations from the lungs vitiate the air very rapidly. Furthermore, these children often come from houses not the most scrupulously clean; their clothes are sometimes filled with the odors that arise from cooking, for one room has to serve for kitchen, dining room, and living room. In such a place boiled cabbage, fried onions, or garlic, sausage meat, and doughnuts leave traces of perfume in the dresses of girls and in the jackets of boys. Nor should anyone regard this fact "with a disdainful smile," for out of such surroundings have arisen men and women eminent in the Republic. The fact is emphasized here only to show that schoolrooms where such men and women may be developed ought to have plenty of fresh air.

Difference of climate also is a condition which very much affects the problem of heating and ventilating schoolhouses and dwellings; and an essay designed for all portions of the country, while describing what may be needful for Minnesota and Maine, must be taken with large modifications when applied to the conditions of South Carolina or southern California. But this modification is chiefly one of degree and not a change in principles.

VITIATED AIR.

It is not the purpose here to enter into any scientific discussion of the constituents of foul air, though something of this nature appears below (pp. 43–45). It is rather the purpose to treat the subject in its

practical aspects and in a popular way, and yet it is hoped that nothing will appear that is inconsistent with the science of the subject.

Popularly, then, it is said that the air which has been exhaled from the lungs contains a certain larger per cent. of carbonic acid gas, and this gas is known to be heavier than the pure air. It is this gas which settles at the bottom of a certain valley in France to the depth of 2 or 3 feet. Taken into the lungs of an animal it causes death; hence a dog dies when he tries to walk through this valley, because he is immersed in the gas and can breathe no air, while a man walking through with his head above the stratum of carbonic acid gas and in the air, remains uninjured. The danger from this gas arises from the exclusion of air, and not so much from its poisonous nature. It is often asserted that in the process of ventilation the exhaust should be from the bottom of the room because this gas settles there. It is true that the exhaust should be from the bottom of the room, but not for this reason. The foul air of a schoolroom is not always or necessarily at the bottom of the room. It is at the top of the room under certain conditions, and perhaps more frequently than at the bottom. The impurity does not consist of carbonic acid alone; it consists of exhalations from the skin, of other substances thrown off from the lungs besides this gas, and of watery vapor. All this is at a temperature very nearly that of the lungs and the body, which is normally about 98° F., and hence it is lighter than the air of the room, and it tends to rise for that reason. Even the carbonic acid, which in its pure state is heavier than air at the same temperature, being of a higher temperature and mixed with vapor and various impurities, rises to the top of the room at first instead of settling to the floor.

This has been proved by the following experiment: The schoolroom, Fig. 1, was about 40 feet long and 25 or 30 feet wide. It was 10 feet high to the cornice *a*, just above the windows; and above the cornice

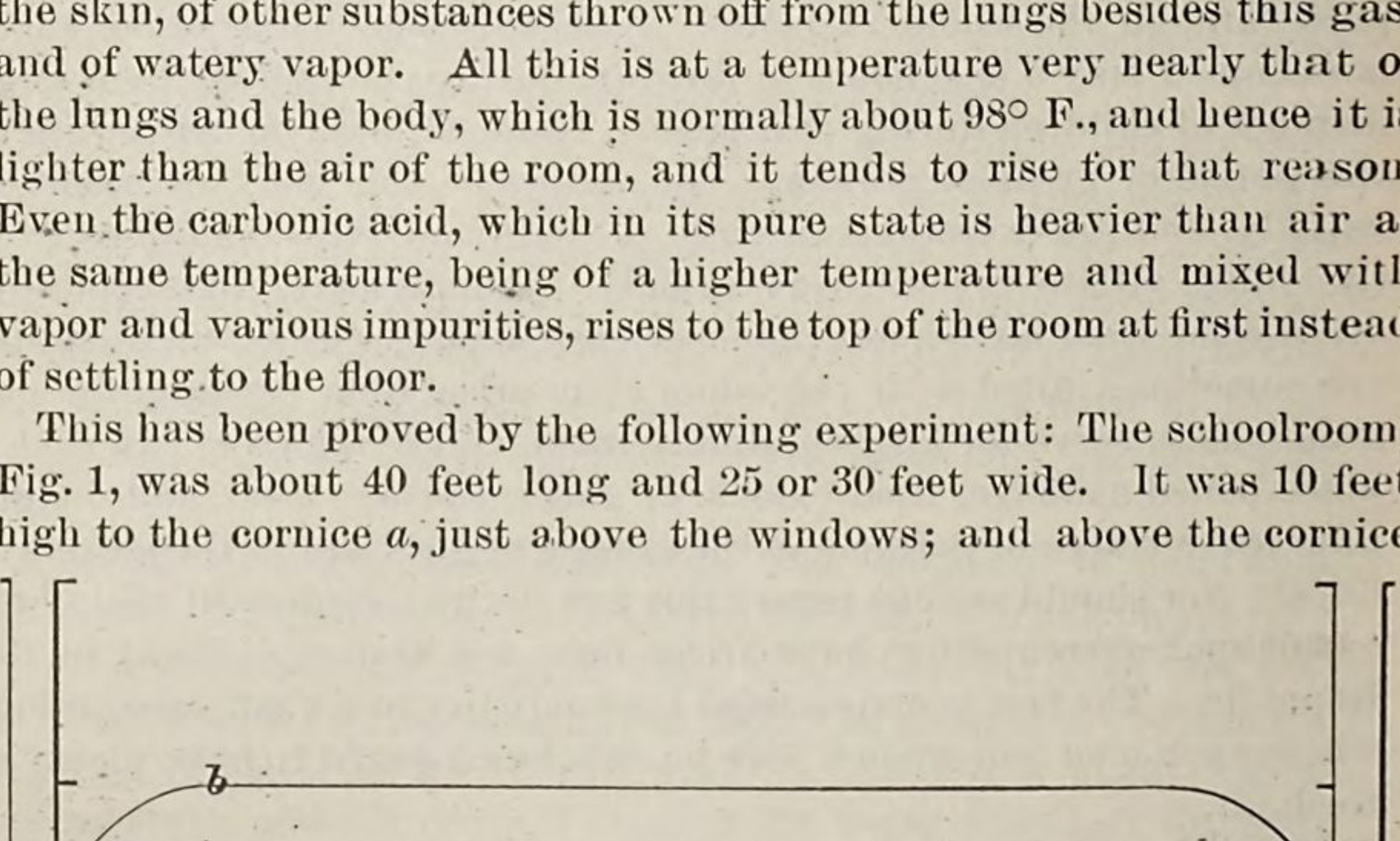

FIG. 1.—School-room.

the ceiling rose in a flat arch 3 or 4 feet to *b*. On the back side were half a dozen windows, on the front side were three doors, and at each end there was a fireplace, *c*, *c*, with a good draft; on the back side of each fireplace, at the end, was a window, and on the front side was a door. The room was heated by a large stove. While the school was in session, the air was admitted from the halls through transoms over the doors, and through the windows, which were lowered an inch or two; and it was exhausted through the fireplaces. The school closed at 1 o'clock, when the windows and doors were thrown open and the wind was allowed to sweep through the room all the afternoon. The room was then as sweet as the out-door air. At night the doors and windows were closed and the fire in the stove was allowed to smolder; but in the morning the room was filled with the school-house odor of foul breaths. At first this seemed unaccountable; but upon careful investigation it appeared that a stratum of warm and impure air had remained in the arch above the cornice, during the afternoon, when the wind had swept through the lower part of the room; and as it cooled at night this foul air had settled and diffused itself throughout the room. The discovery was made by mounting a ladder to hang a picture and putting the head into the stratum of air above the cornice, just before closing the room for the night. This experiment shows beyond a doubt that the foul air will rise to the top of a heated school room, and that this part needs ventilation not less than the bottom.

The conditions in this room would have been vastly improved if the windows had extended to the top of the arch or if there had been a ventilating register at the top of the arch leading into the chimney flue. But the ventilator should have been closed during the day, in this case, or else the heated air of the room would pass out rapidly at the top; and in case the windows were extended to the highest part of the ceiling the warm air would pass out in the same way, unless the openings were barely large enough to supply the air which was exhausted through the fireplaces.*

RADIANT HEAT.

In a small room there is no doubt that an open grate or a wood fire is the best means of heating and ventilation. The heat is by this means radiated directly from the glowing coals; it strikes the funiture, walls, ceiling, and floor of the room and warms them. The air is warmed by contact with these objects and not by the radiant heat passing through it. The air for breathing is therefore comparatively cool, as it ought to be; it retains its natural moisture, and does not absorb from the nostrils, air-passages, and lungs so much of the moisture as to leave them in a dry, parched, and unhealthy condition. The draft of the open fireplace changes the air in the room frequently, and, if the air is supplied through passages around the fireplace connected

* For currents of heated air see Figs. 24–30.

with the outside near the floor and opening near the top of the room above the fireplace, it is partially warmed in passing around the brick work behind the fireplace; and these conditions are nearly perfect.*

But what is so admirable on a small scale is not suited to a large room with many people in it. Too many fireplaces would be required, and in a large building of many rooms the care of these and the inevitable interruption which it would cause, to say nothing of the dust and ashes that would be scattered over the room, all make a great and unnecessary expense. The cost of fuel would also be enormous, for not more than one-eighth of the heat generated by the combustion would be available in the rooms; the other seven-eighths would pass up the chimney.

HEATING BY STOVES.

In a close room the air can be very economically heated by a stove of suitable size. The air is heated by contact with the heated iron of the stove, and its volume being increased by the rarification which heat produces the air immediately rises to the top of the room and is replaced by the denser cold air, and this in turn becomes heated to rise and be replaced by more cold air. It will greatly facilitate this movement of the air, and the consequent heating of all parts of the room, to surround the stove by a jacket of sheet iron raised a few inches from the floor and distant 5 or 6 inches from the stove. The air passes under the jacket and up between it and the stove, and becomes heated in passing. The motion is much more rapid with the jacket, and those pupils who sit nearest the stove are by it relieved from the too great heat directly from the stove. Seats near the stove and those in the farthest part of the room thus become equally comfortable. Such a movement of the air is illustrated by the following diagram (Fig. 2.) of the plan and the vertical section of a round stove with jacket.

A very convenient modification of the jacket is made by constructing a frame of board about 2 feet wide and 3 or 4 feet high, and of slats 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, with the sides extending 6 or 8 inches below the cross-bars, and a less distance above them. This frame is then covered

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* See Circular of Information No. 4, 1880, pp. 78, 79.

with sheet zinc or iron, and two of the frames are hinged together so as to open and shut like a book. When placed near the stove and

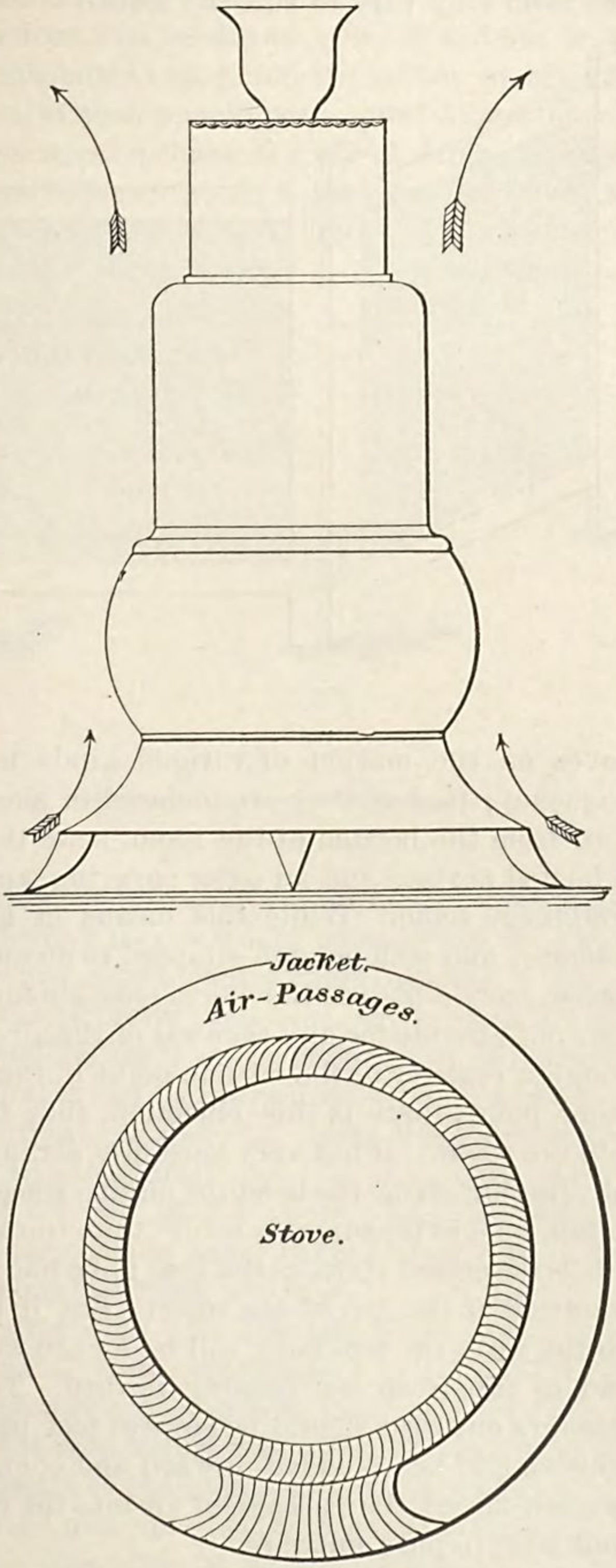

Fig. 2.

opened nearly at a right angle, one of these double frames will serve as a screen; and two of them may be so placed as to serve as a jacket for

the stove. This screen is represented roughly in Fig. 3; of course its size should depend upon the diameter and the height of the stove to be enclosed, and the form may vary to suit the taste.

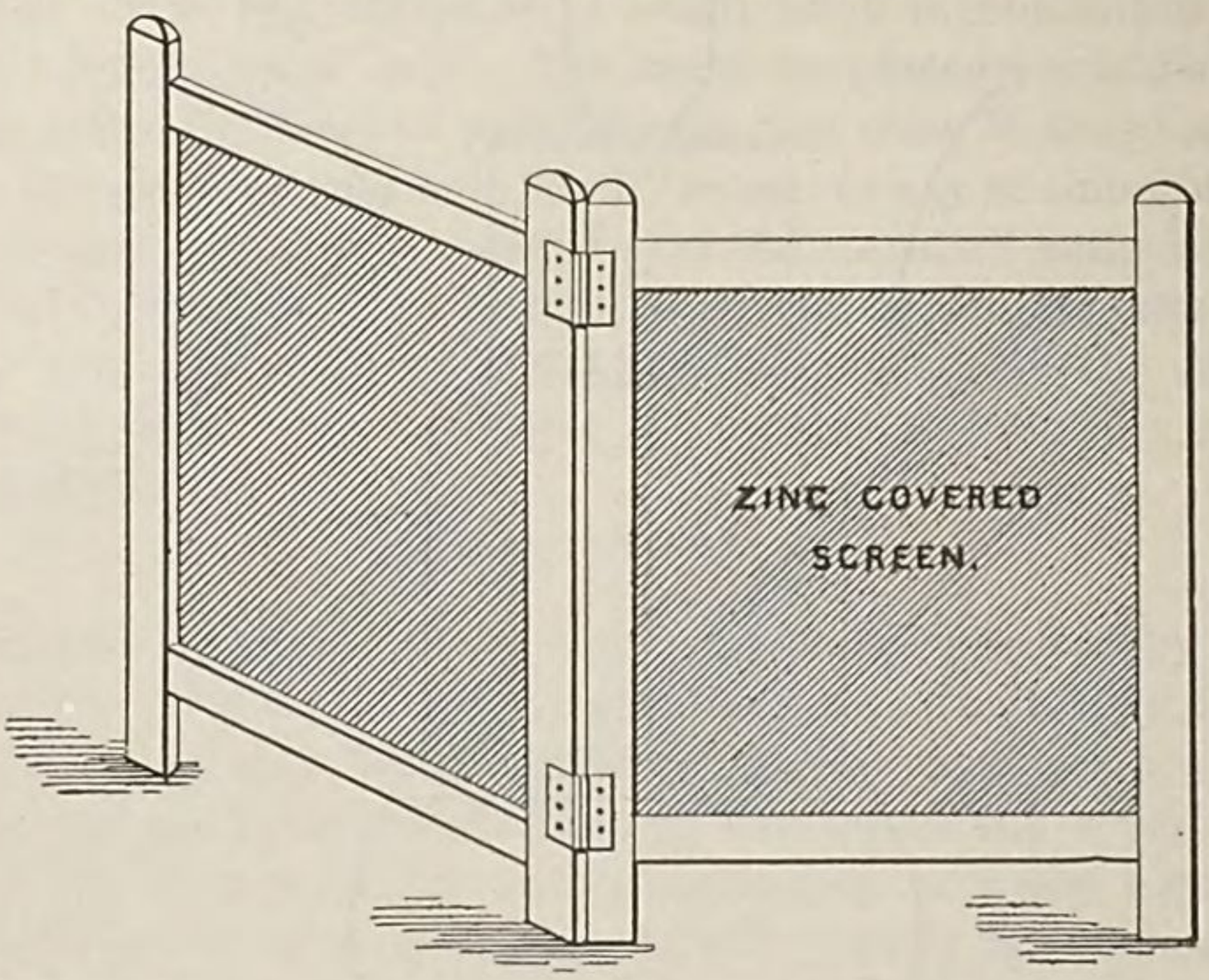

Fig. 3.

There are stoves on the market of various kinds made upon the principle of this jacket; that is, they are inclosed in sheet iron in such a way that the air from the bottom of the room, near the floor, passes up between the heated surface and an outer covering, and is thus made to circulate through the room. While this means of heating is very direct and economical, and well enough adapted to an unoccupied room that is to be heated, such a plan is the worst possible for a room full of children. It does not provide for any renewal of the air; and if the air is admitted through a register or flue at one point in the room, and exhausted at another point, there is this objection, that the air is cold when admitted to the room. If not very carefully arranged, the openings will cause drafts that strike the heads of pupils, since this colder air always tends to fall, as it is presumably colder than the air in the room. If such a stove as is described above is the best to be had, then the fresh air should be admitted at the top of the room. But if the opening is directly through the wall, the tendency will be for the warm air to pass outward, instead of the fresh air passing inward. To obviate this difficulty, the opening outward should be several feet below the top of the room; the flue should be extended upward and open into the room. Such an arrangement allows the passage of air into the room, while the warm air does not tend to pass outward.

This construction is illustrated in Fig. 4, in which *a* represents an opening in the outer wall, which is connected by a flue with the register *b* opening into the room. The heated air which rises to the top of the room will not pass outward through the flue, because it is lighter

than the external air; if *a* were directly opposite to *b*, the draft would ordinarily be outward. On the opposite (left) side of the room, *c* represents a register connected with a flue, and if this flue is heated the air from near the floor will be drawn upward and out of the room. If this exhaust is sufficiently rapid, and if the flue is of sufficient size, if also there are several such openings as *a* and *b*, and of sufficient size, the air in the room may be changed with tolerable rapidity. Such ventilation is defective because the air in the room can not be heated by the

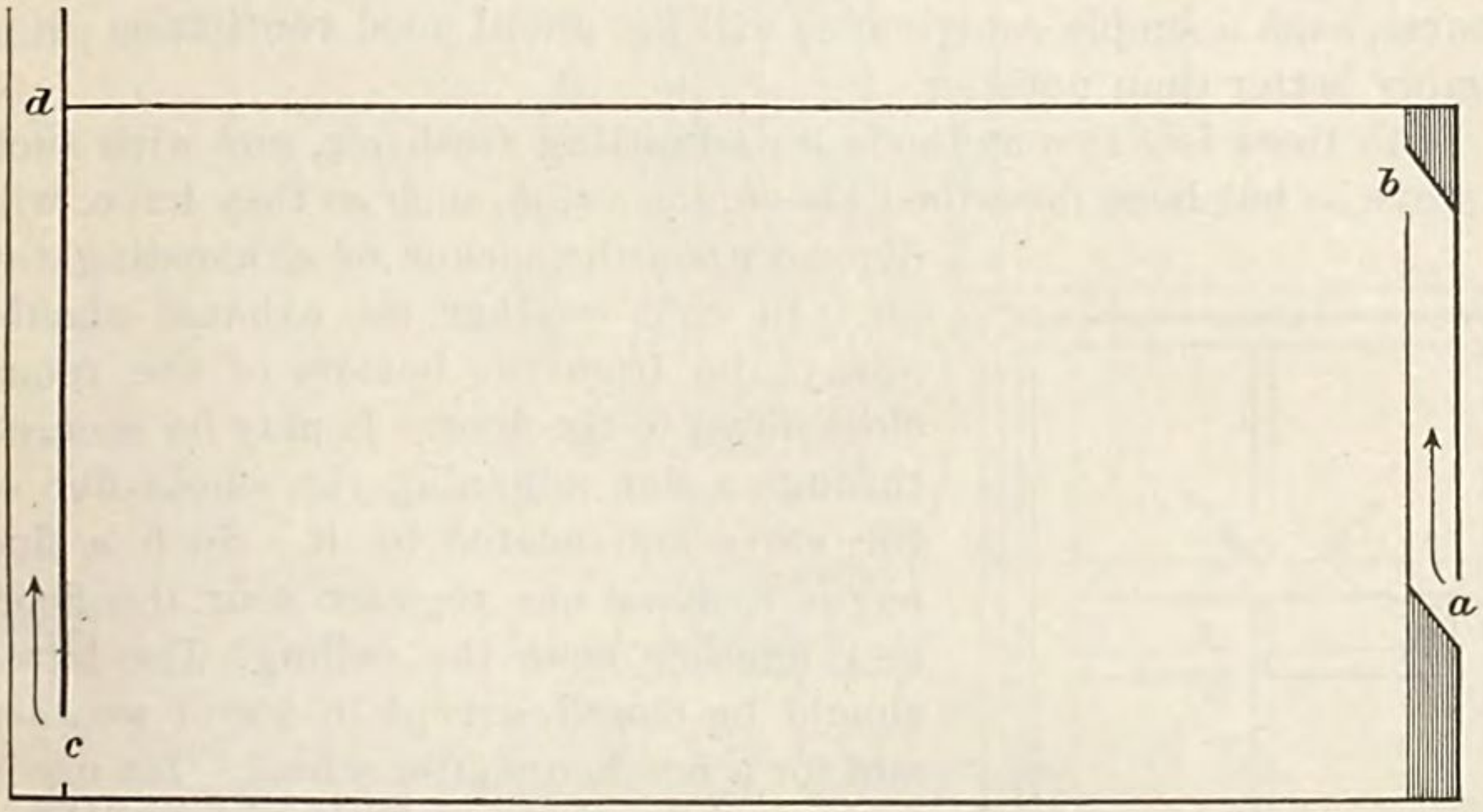

Fig. 4.

stove in cold weather so fast as it should be admitted and exhausted; and some very effective means would be required for heating the flue *c d* in order to secure a sufficiently rapid exhaust. But defective as this plan is, it is vastly better than none, and probably it is much better than anything provided for a great majority of schoolhouses. It has this advantage, that it can be introduced into old houses.

The Eureka ventilator is made to supply fresh air on the principle of the flue *a b* (Fig. 4), and if six or eight of them are inserted on two of the outer walls of an ordinary schoolroom, they will supply an amount of fresh air that will sustain life fairly well. As the air enters through one of these ventilators it has a tendency upward; the air is thus diffused, and it is therefore less liable to strike the heads of the pupils in a cold current. The principle is illustrated in Fig. 5. The slats at *a*, like an ordinary window blind, shed the water in a storm; those at *b* give the incoming air an upward motion, and diffuse it through the room.

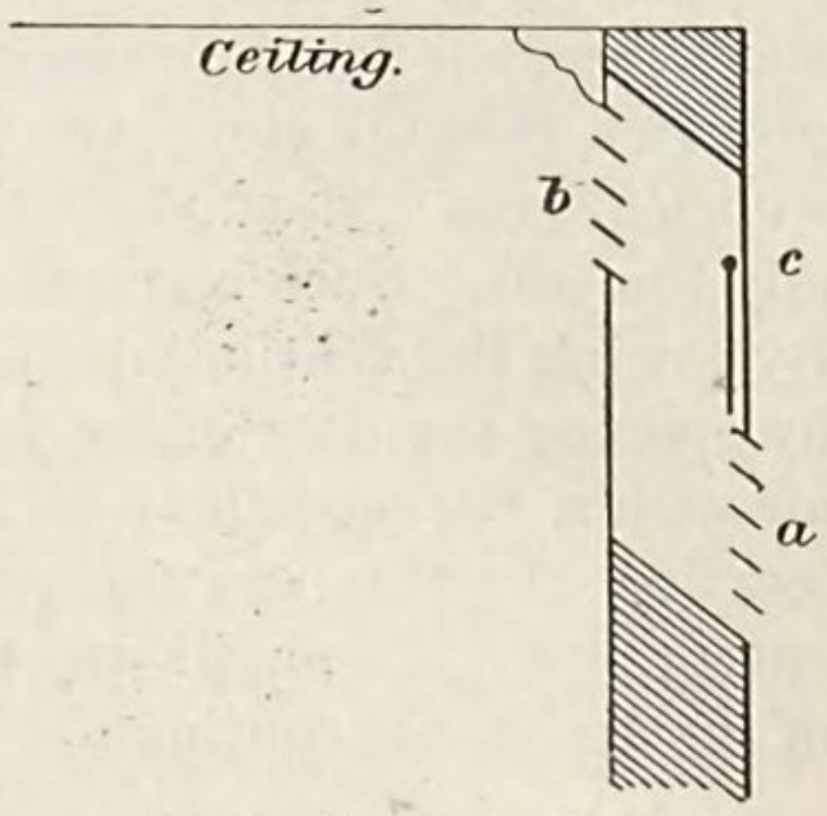

Fig. 5.—Eureka ventilator.

The trapdoor hinged at *c* may be used to close the ventilator; and it is operated by a cord extending into the room and passing over a pulley.

In the absence of even this method of admitting fresh air, a very simple means may be supplied by fitting a piece of board 3 or 4 inches wide, so that it may be placed under the lower sash of a window, and completely close the opening. The raising of this lower sash will leave an open space between the upper and the lower sash, through which the air will enter the room with an upward motion (Fig. 6). Of course, such a simple contrivance will not afford good ventilation; it is simply better than nothing.

With these last two methods for admitting fresh air, and with such a stove as has been described above, the value, such as they have, will depend upon the means of exhausting the air. In cold weather the exhaust should always be from the bottom of the room, close down to the floor. It may be secured through a flue adjoining the smoke-flue of the stove and heated by it. Such a flue ought to have one register near the floor, and another near the ceiling. The latter should be closed, except in warm weather and for a few hours after school. Its use is to remove the vitiated air that may settle at the top of the room, as illustrated in Fig. 1.

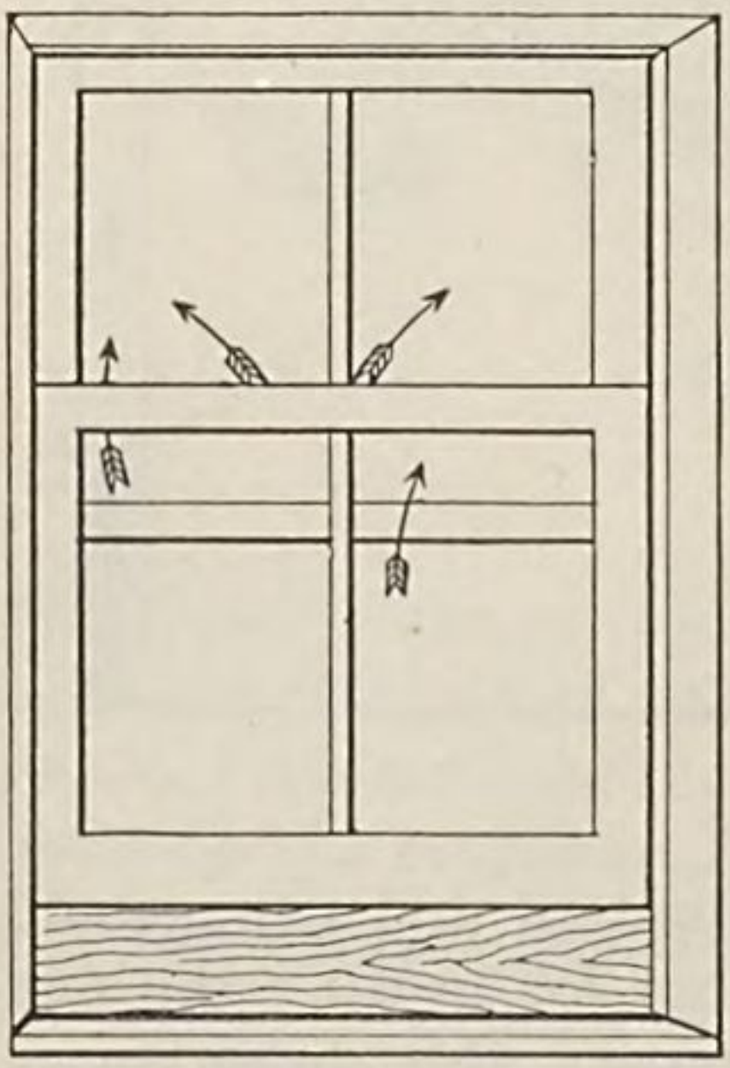

FIG. 6.

A much better method of heating by ordinary stoves is to surround the stove with a jacket extending to the floor, and having a door in front through which to regulate and feed the stove. Beneath the stove an opening may be made in the floor and connected with the outer air, but never with the basement. The fresh air from outside is thus heated as it passes into the room; and if the exhaust is near the stove, and through a flue extending to the floor, the conditions are excellent, provided that the stove, the air supply, and the ventilating flue are of sufficient size. They ought to be about four times as large as is generally thought. Such a stove as is here described is shown in Fig. 7. By closing the ventilating flue and the outer air supply at night, and by opening the door of the jacket, or the lower part of the jacket, the air within the room may be kept warm, when it is unoccupied, with a low fire. In this way the room may be well heated before the pupils enter; but while pupils are in the room the supply and the exhaust of the air should continue.

If the register in the ventilating flue at the top of the room is kept open, then the warm air from the stove will pass up and directly out of the room, as surely as water will flow from a hole in the bottom of a barrel; and the room will be neither heated nor ventilated. This upper register ought always to be closed when the room is to be heated.

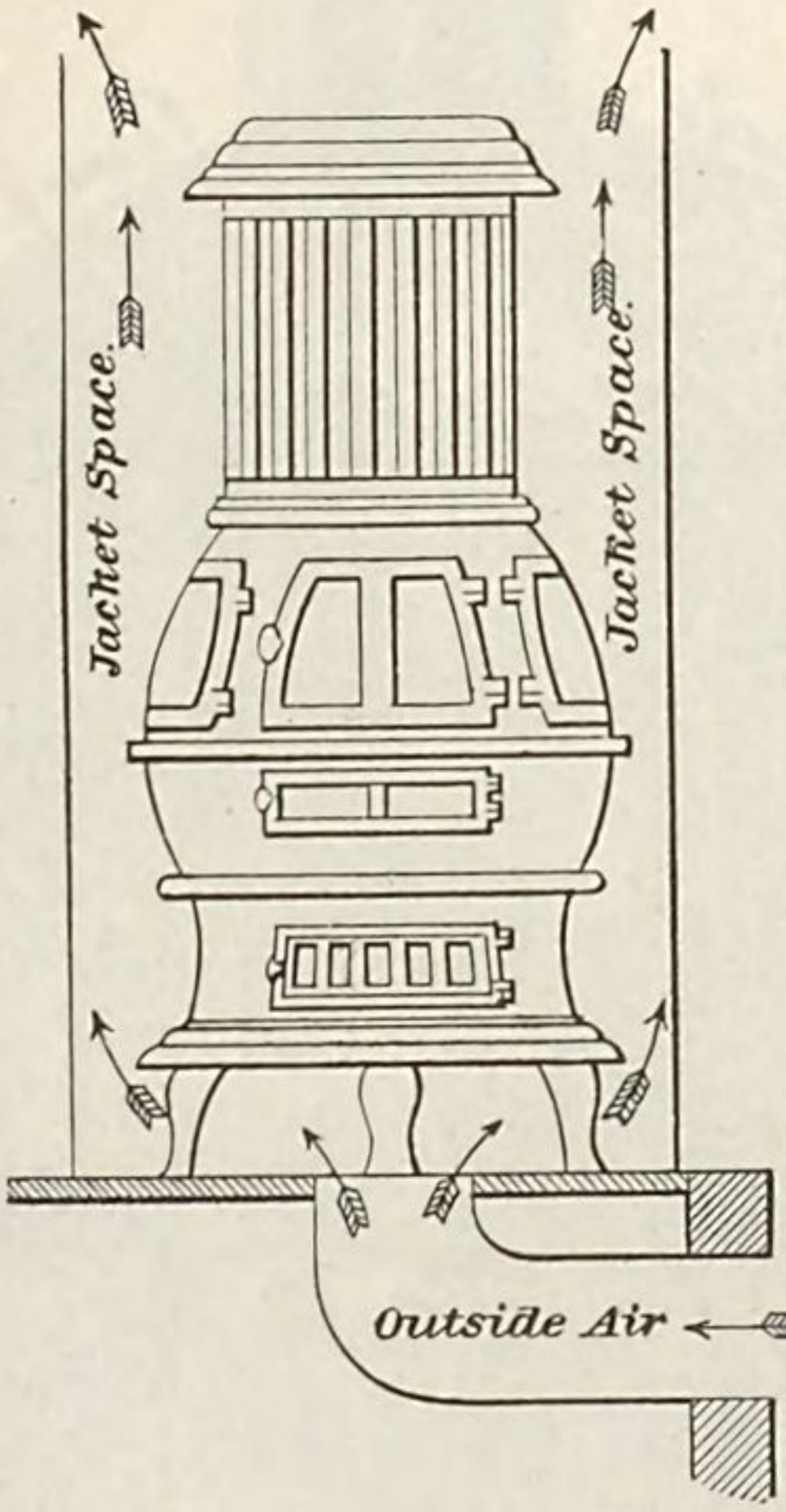

FIG. 7.—Jacket stove.

There are various jacket stoves or heaters in the market that embody the principles outlined above. All these are connected through the floor, at the base, with a flue extending to the outer air; and in this flue the current is regulated by a damper. On the second floor of a house this flue may be carried between the timbers to the outer wall of the house, where the opening should be protected from storms by slats sloping downward, like those of the Eureka ventilator referred to above (p. 15).

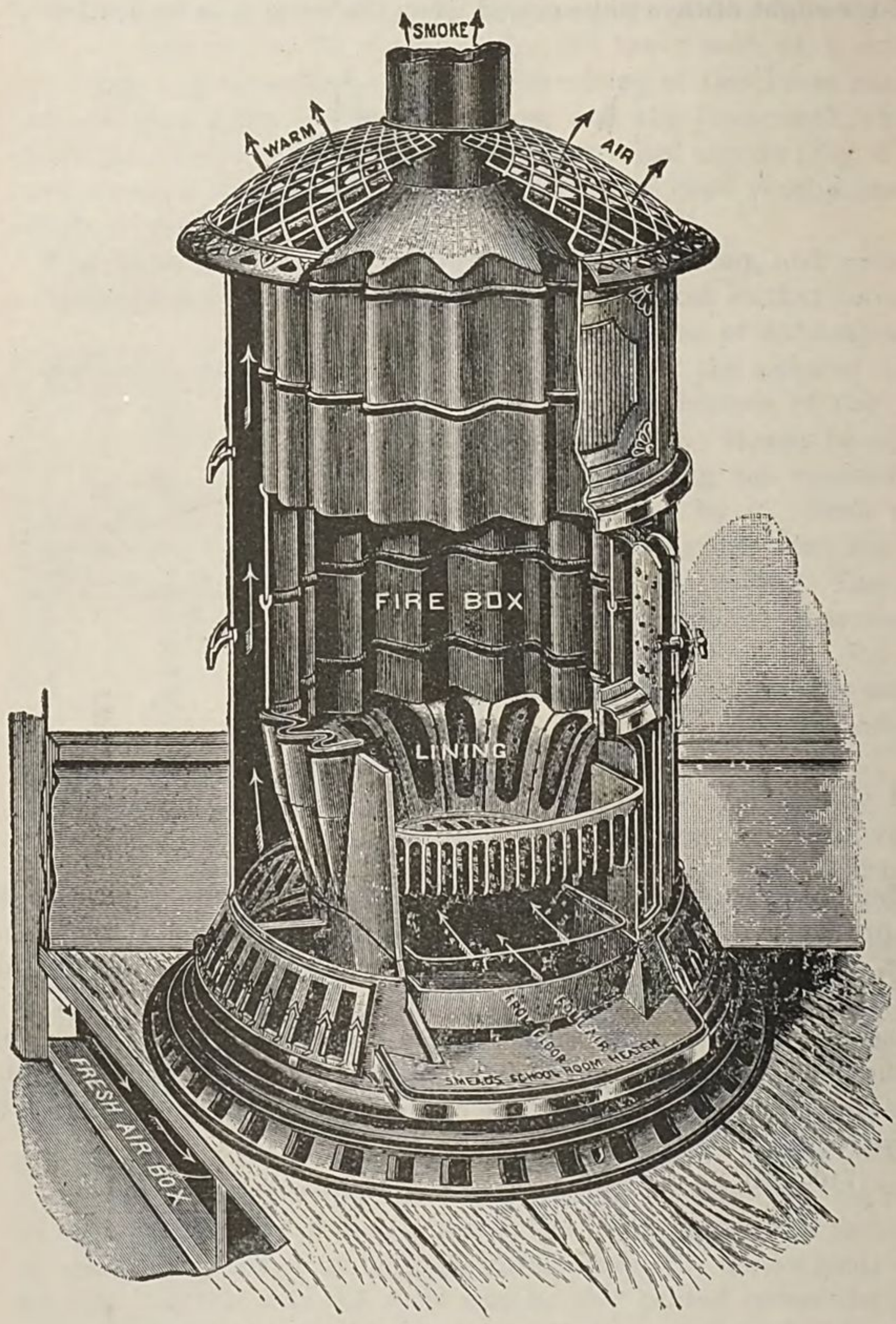

FIG. 8.—Interior view of schoolroom heater.

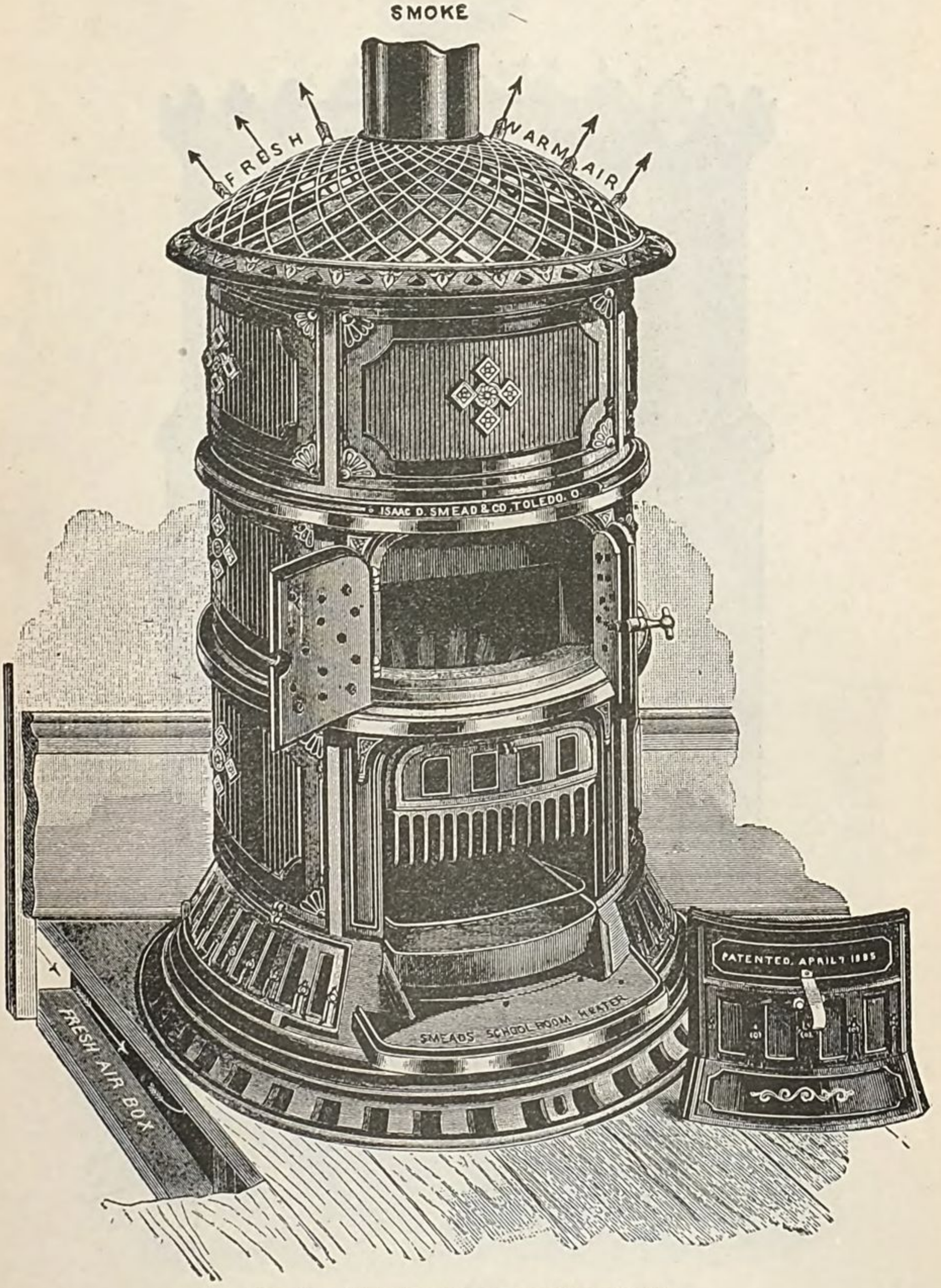

FIG. 8 *a*.—Exterior view of schoolroom heater.

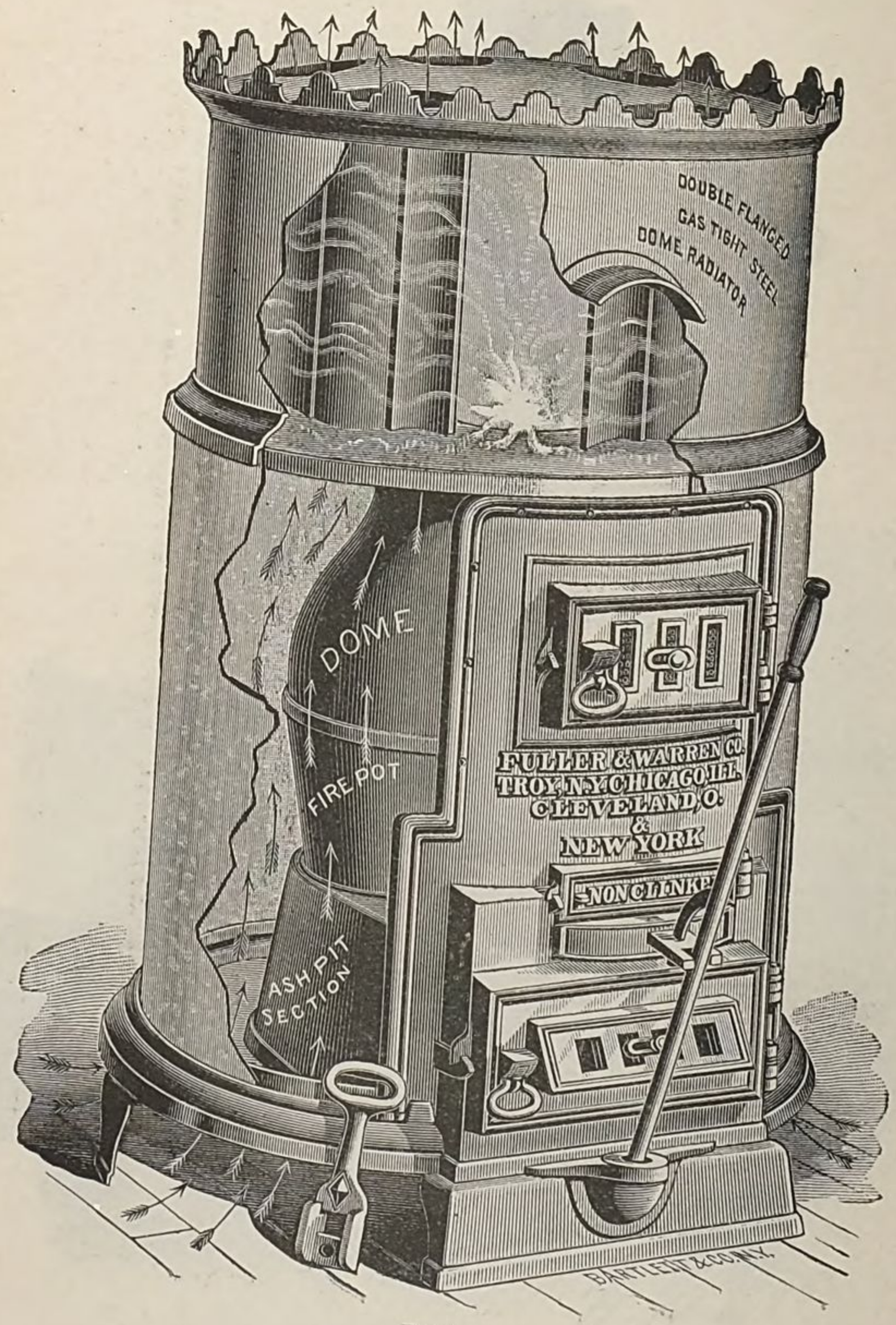
DOUBLE FLANGED
GAS TIGHT STEEL
DOME RADIATOR
DOME
FIRE POT
ASH PIT
SECTION
FULLER & WARREN CO.
TROY, N.Y. CHICAGO, ILL.
CLEVELAND, O.
&
NEW YORK
NON CLINKE
BARTLETT & CO. N.Y.

Fig. 9.

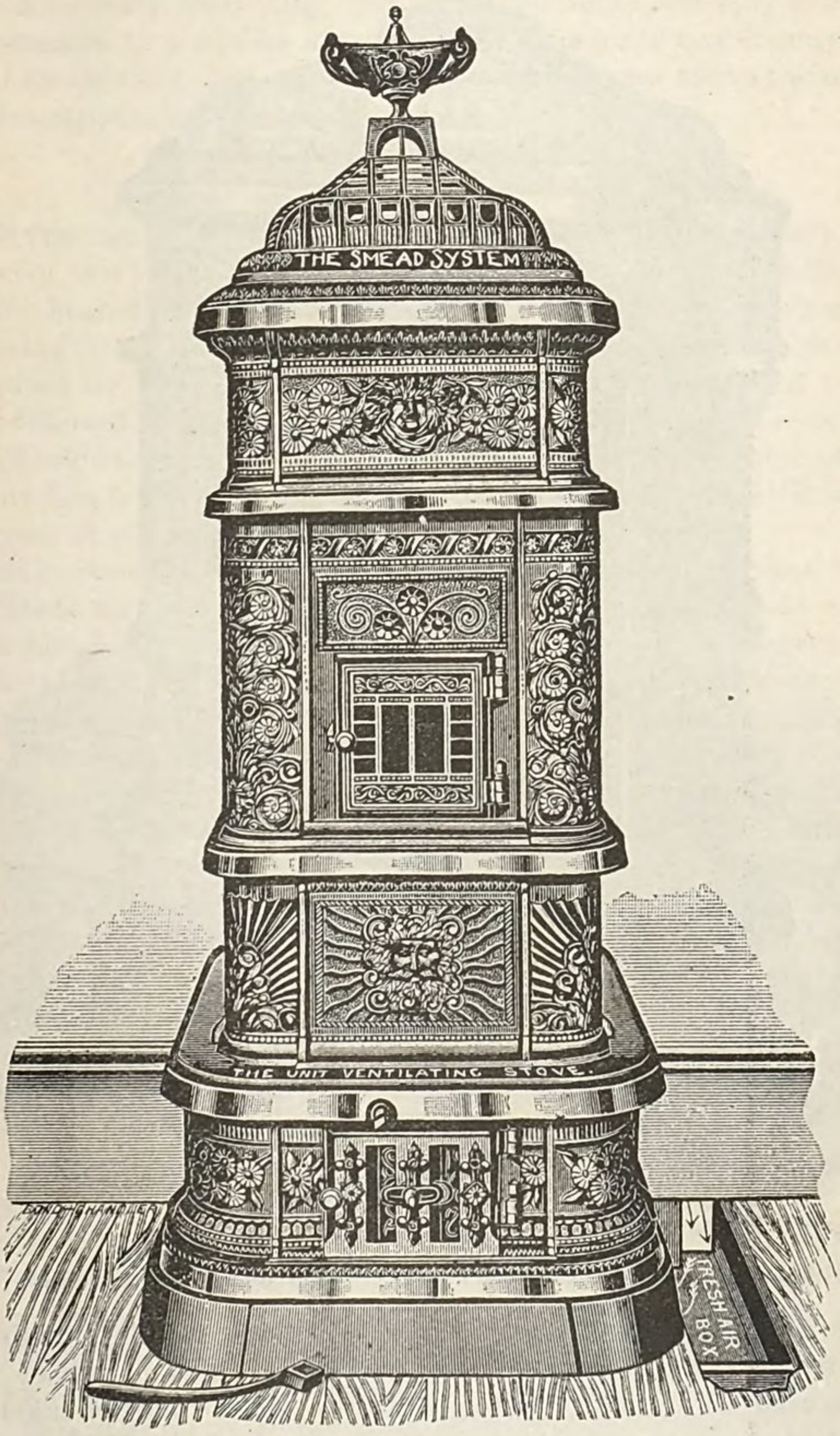

FIG. 10.—The unit schoolroom heater. (Designed especially for hard coal.)

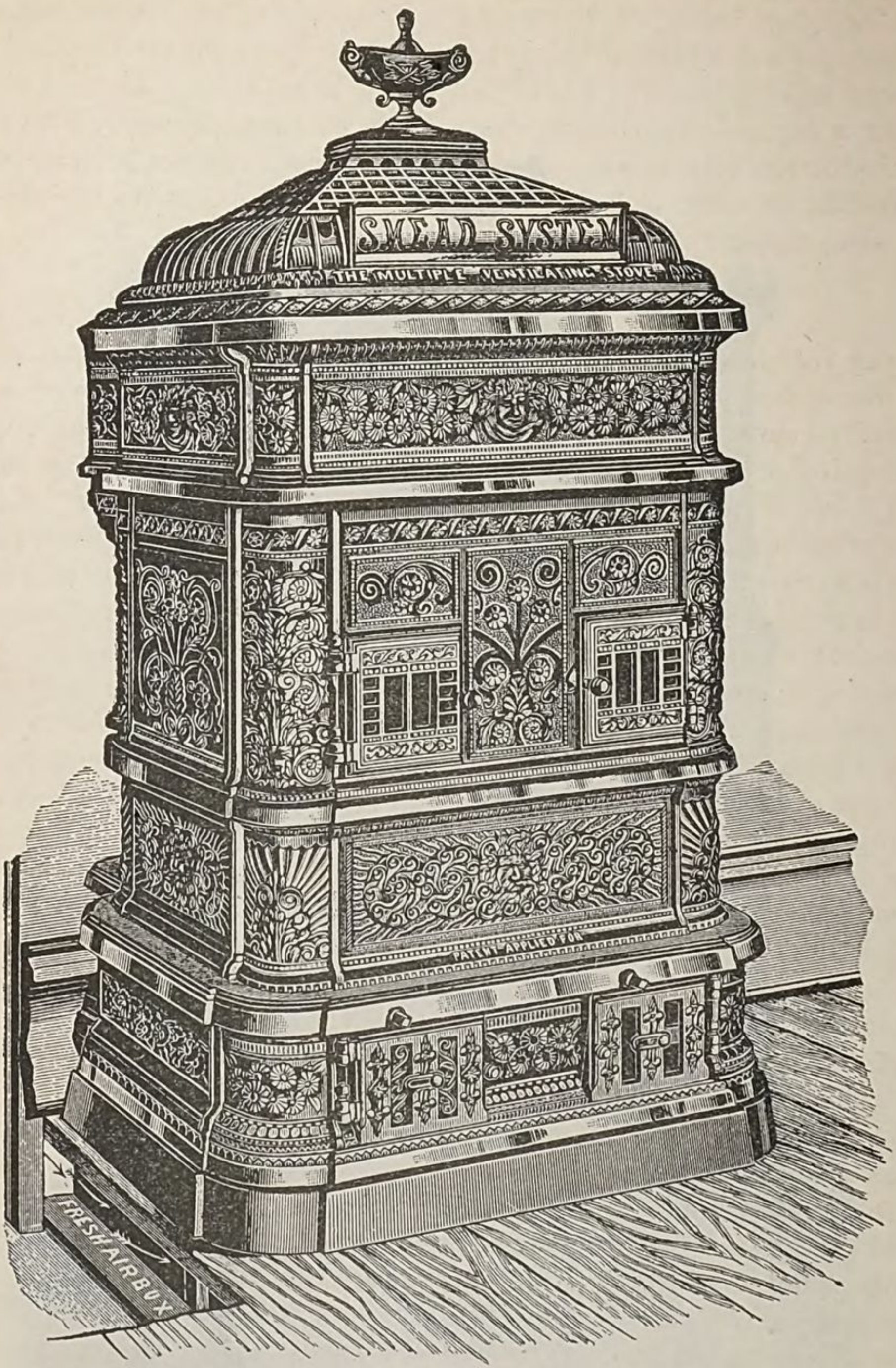

FIG. 10*a*.—The duplex schoolroom heater. (Designed especially for hard coal.)

This is the latest and one of the best of these ventilating stoves or heaters. It has one, two, or three fire boxes, all or a part of which may be used, according to the temperature. The air may be taken from the outside when the school is in session; or at night and before school, when the air in the room is pure, this air may be passed through the heater and raised to the required temperature. Connected with this heater is a ventilating flue that is heated by the smoke pipe, and by this flue the foul air may be exhausted from the room at the back of the

stove and just below where the warm fresh air enters. This secures the most perfect distribution of the heated air throughout the room, as is shown in Fig. 30. The use of this heater does away with the necessity for a separate ventilating flue. It is therefore specially adapted to introduction into houses already built. One large heater may also be used for heating and ventilating two rooms, one above the other. (See, also, Appendix I.)

HOT-AIR FURNACES.

These ventilating or jacket stoves are adapted to small houses with only one or two rooms. Larger buildings may be better and more economically heated by furnaces in the basement. Such a heating apparatus, being in one place or in several places near together, can be more easily cared for by the janitor than several stoves in different rooms and on different floors, and all the noise and confusion in the schoolroom is avoided. The dust, too, which inevitably escapes more or less from any fire, is kept in the basement, and it need not get into the schoolroom at all, as it must where stoves are used.

Heating rooms by hot air has this advantage, that there can be no heat without a change of air; hence there is always ventilation where there is heat. If the room is warm, there is ventilation of necessity.

On the other hand there is an evil attendant upon this means of heating. Unlike radiant heat, it is the air of the room, and not the walls and furniture, that is heated. The air warms the room, and not the room and the fire the air, as where radiant heat is used. (See p. 11.) Moreover, as the air is raised in temperature, its capacity for moisture is increased. It dries the furniture and finish of the room, causing shrinkage and cracks, and it absorbs the moisture from the skin, throat, air-passages, and lungs of the pupils, making them feel parched and dry. This is very unhealthy. It causes diseases of various kinds. This evil has produced a prejudice against hot-air furnaces, but the evil may be easily avoided. It has been caused by the general custom of heating the air too much, and even burning it—charring any impurities contained in the air and destroying the oxygen, which is the life-giving principle of pure air—and by inattention to moistening the air sufficiently.

Usually, in the old furnaces, a small quantity of air has been delivered to the room at a temperature of 150° or 200°, to mix with the cooler air of the room so as to produce the required temperature of 68°; and again, the attempt has frequently been made to send a current of hot air into a room without any means of removing the air already in the room. This attempt is as futile as trying to pour water into a bottle already full. Most rooms are not absolutely tight. There are crevices around the doors and windows and through the walls more or less, and the doors are opened more or less frequently, so that the attempt has not always been entirely unsuccessful; but when the wind blows against

the windows and forces itself through the crevices in the walls, the heated air will not rise into the room so situated, and it is impossible to heat it in this way. By connecting a register near the floor of such a room with the bottom of the furnace where cold air is admitted, the cold air in the room will fall to the lower part of the furnace, creating a vacuum in the room, and the heated air from the furnace will then rise to fill and warm the room. The air should never be thus reheated, however, in an occupied room.

In all methods of heating by hot-air furnaces, or by indirect steam or hot water, as much care should be taken to secure the exhaust from the room as is taken to supply the room with fresh warm air. And this is required for the heating alone, as well as for the proper ventilation of the room.

In all methods of this indirect heating, provision should be made for supplying the air with the amount of moisture which it demands in consequence of its higher temperature. This moisture may be supplied by placing a shallow dish of fresh water in such a position that the warm air may pass over it and absorb the moisture. And here great care should be taken to secure the right amount of moisture for the air. If this amount is too little, parched lips and throats, and shrunken furniture will result, as shown above; if the amount of moisture is too great, equally pernicious results will follow. The pupil will breathe an atmosphere saturated with steam; the furniture, ceilings, and the books and apparatus will be injured; and the health of the children will be seriously exposed when they go into the cold outdoor air with their clothing moist, and the pores of their bodies and lungs opened by breathing an atmosphere of steam, more or less perceptible.

In any method of heating, the proper regulating of the moisture is of supreme importance; it is of more importance in using furnaces, because not unfrequently the iron of these furnaces is heated to redness, so that the capacity for moisture of the air is very greatly increased. In heating by hot water the apparatus can never rise to a temperature much above 212°. This danger is, therefore, reduced to a minimum. And in heating by steam the apparatus never rises to so high a degree of heat as it may, and sometimes does, with furnaces.

In respect to steam heat there is a popular fallacy that because steam is apparently moist the air heated by steam must, therefore, be moist. This is an error, because the air is heated only by contact with the iron of the radiators; and this iron is heated by the steam within. Pure steam at a high temperature is dry. Whether or not the steam is dry within the radiators, so long as it is confined within them the air without receives no moisture from the steam. The reason for the popular impression that steam heat is not dry is that quite generally more or less steam escapes from the apparatus. This escape is likely to result in too much moisture; and when this is the case the evil is likely to be greater than if there were too little moisture. It is within the experience

of most persons familiar with steam heat that it dries the air and shrinks the furniture. It is equally within their experience, that a leaky radiator will render a room uninhabitable from the presence of steam.

In heating by hot-air furnaces, the radiating surface should be very large; and it should never be heated to redness. The fire should be made to burn slowly, and never be forced. When fresh coal is put on the draft should be left open for a while, and a sufficient amount of air should be admitted above the coal to consume all the gas that is generated by the heat of the burning coal below the fresh coal. The draft should not be closed till all the fresh coal has been burned to redness. It is generally more economical to supply fresh coal often, and in thin layers. This is true of boilers and stoves as well as of furnaces. Not infrequently in passing houses where furnace fires are kept, a perceptible odor of coal gas may be perceived in the street. This is caused by placing a layer of fresh coal upon a hot fire and closing the draft of the furnace. The apparatus is then converted into a gas manufactory; and the gas, which is the most valuable part of the coal for combustion and heat, is driven off and escapes up the chimney without burning, and without producing any heat. All this waste gas could be converted into heat by leaving the draft open till the coal burns to redness, and by admitting a small quantity of air above the coal, as most furnaces, stoves, and fire boxes of boilers have provision for doing.

The air to be heated should be admitted through the basement by openings in the walls on more than one side of the building, in order to avoid the influence of the wind. If the wind blows directly into the cold-air flue, too much air may be forced into the furnace, and through it into the room before becoming sufficiently heated. On the other hand, if the wind is in the opposite direction, not enough air will easily pass into the furnace. If the air is conducted to the furnace from a room in the cellar connected with opposite sides of the building, neither of these difficulties will be experienced. Great care should be taken that the air supply is pure and as free as possible from dust. It should not be taken from near the ground, nor from the vicinity of damp places where any decomposition is going on. It should be conducted to the furnace in an air-tight duct of wood or sheet iron. It is dangerous to conduct the fresh air below the floor of the basement, because stagnant water and decaying substances are liable to get into the duct and contaminate the air. But if it is necessary in any case to conduct the fresh air in this way, the greatest care should be taken to make the duct of brick laid in hydraulic cement and water-tight; and the duct should be easily accessible for inspection at frequent intervals.

The hot-air flues leading from the furnace to the schoolroom should always be vertical, and they should lead directly up from the furnace. The best way is to build them of brick plastered smoothly on the inside, but they may be made of galvanized iron. They should be of

ample size, having a section not less than 2 feet square for a room of 40 pupils; and they should enter the room not less than 8 feet above the floor. The opening should be either wholly unobstructed or, at most, screened by an iron frame with wire (not above one-eighth inch), with a mesh of about 2 inches. This opening for the admission of air should be from one-third to one-half higher than its width; and the top of the flues should slope upward to the top of the opening into the room in lobster-back form.

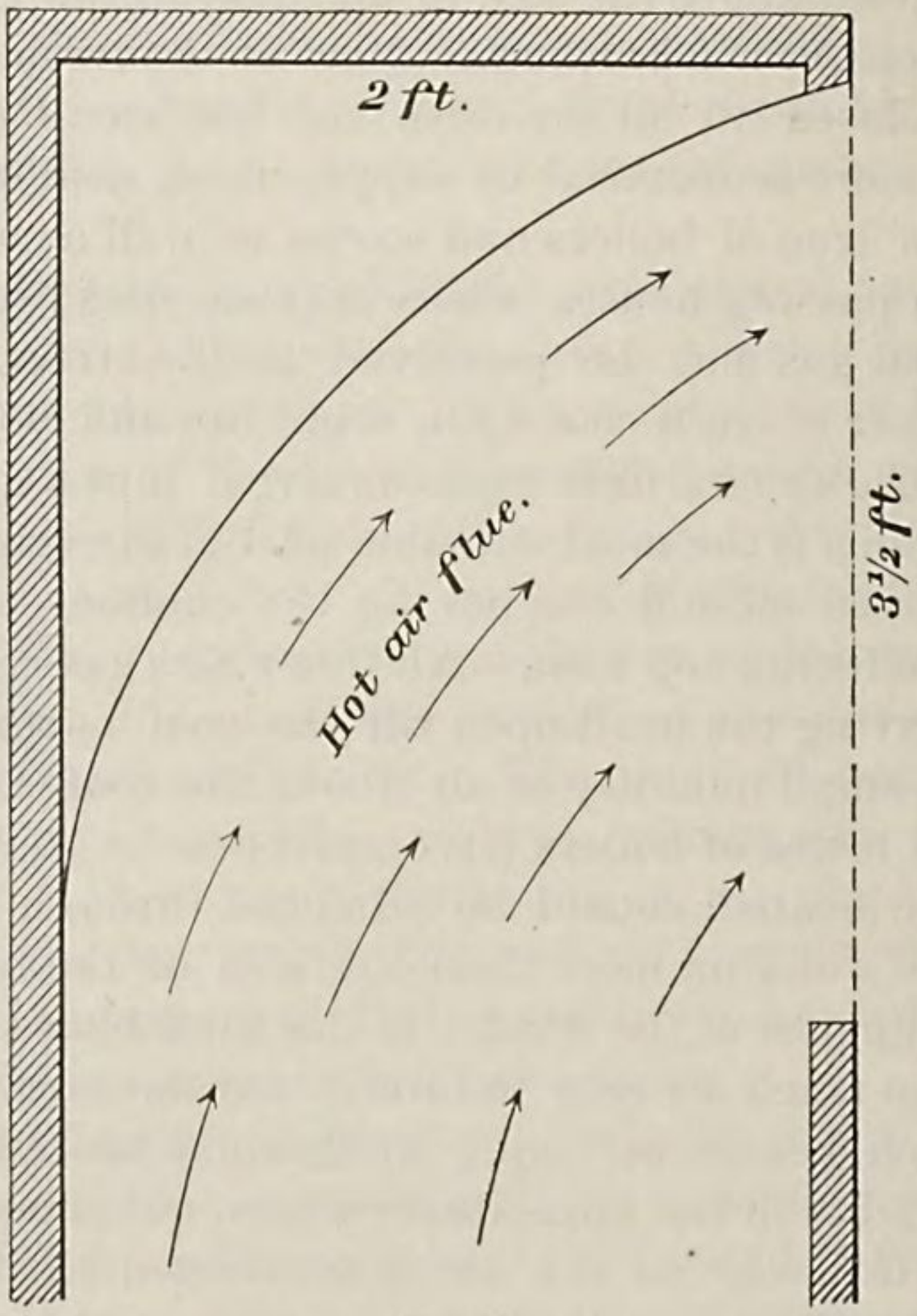

Fig. 11.

The top of the flue (Fig. 11) gives the air an outward direction into the room. The screen (Fig. 12) is so made as to keep things out of the flue and at the same time to obstruct as little as possible the free passage of air. If the flue were left entirely open, not much harm could follow, because of the height; but the opening will look better with the screen. This opening is never to be closed, for when the air entering the room is too hot, by a simple contrivance the hot air is partly or wholly shut off at the furnace, and by the same damper the cold air is admitted through the same flue. Fresh air, either hot or cold, enters the room all the time, and the temperature may be regulated by the teacher at any time. The simple mechanism for producing this result is shown in Fig. 13. While the damper *a* is closed hot air from the furnace passes up the flue; by moving the damper to the position *b*, the hot air is partially shut off and cold air is admitted from the direction *d*; by moving the damper to *c*, only cold air can pass up the flue

to the room. This damper is to be operated by the teacher. The hot air rises into the room by its rarity. The cold air is drawn up by the exhaust-ventilation of the room, which is explained below.

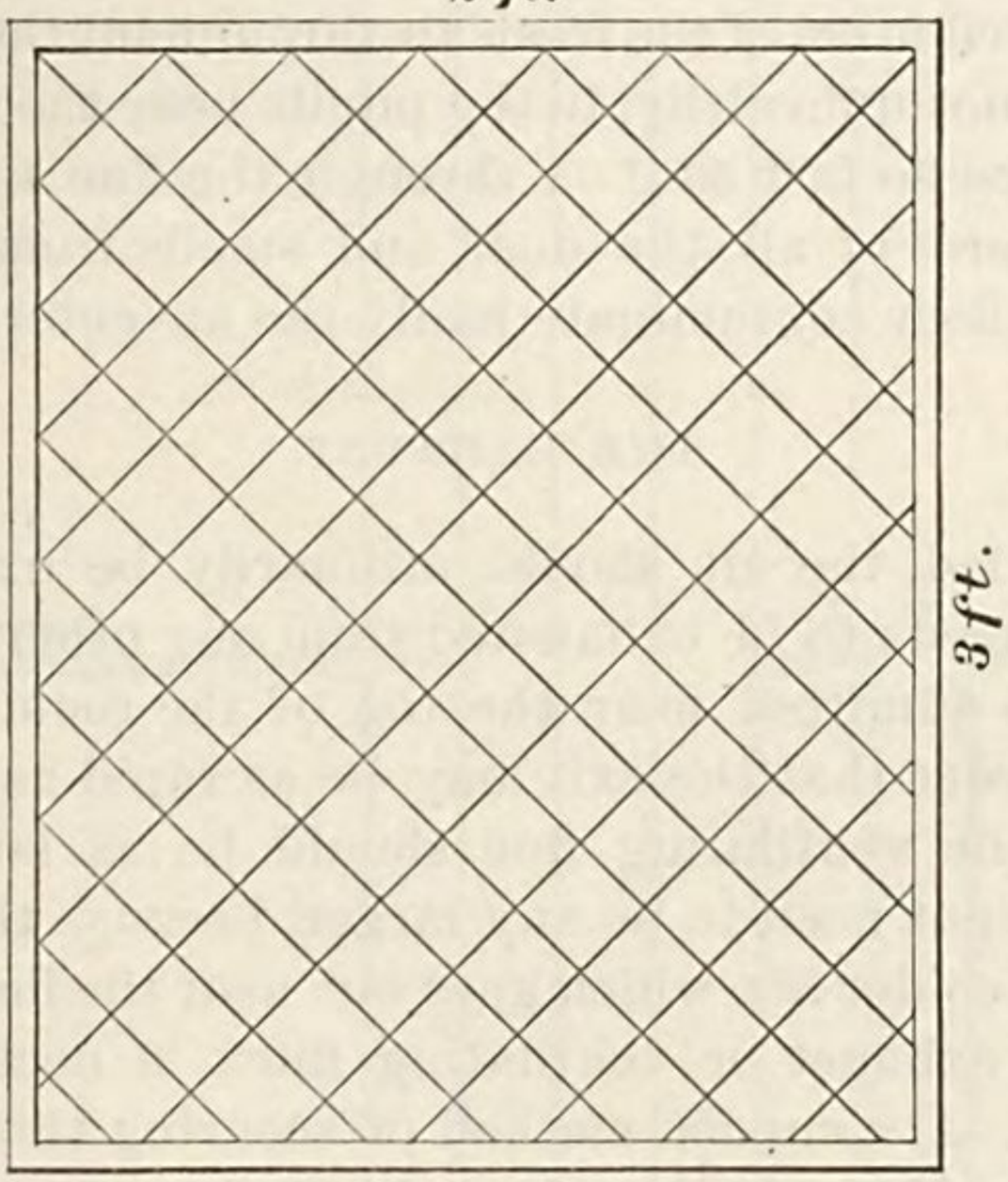

FIG. 12.

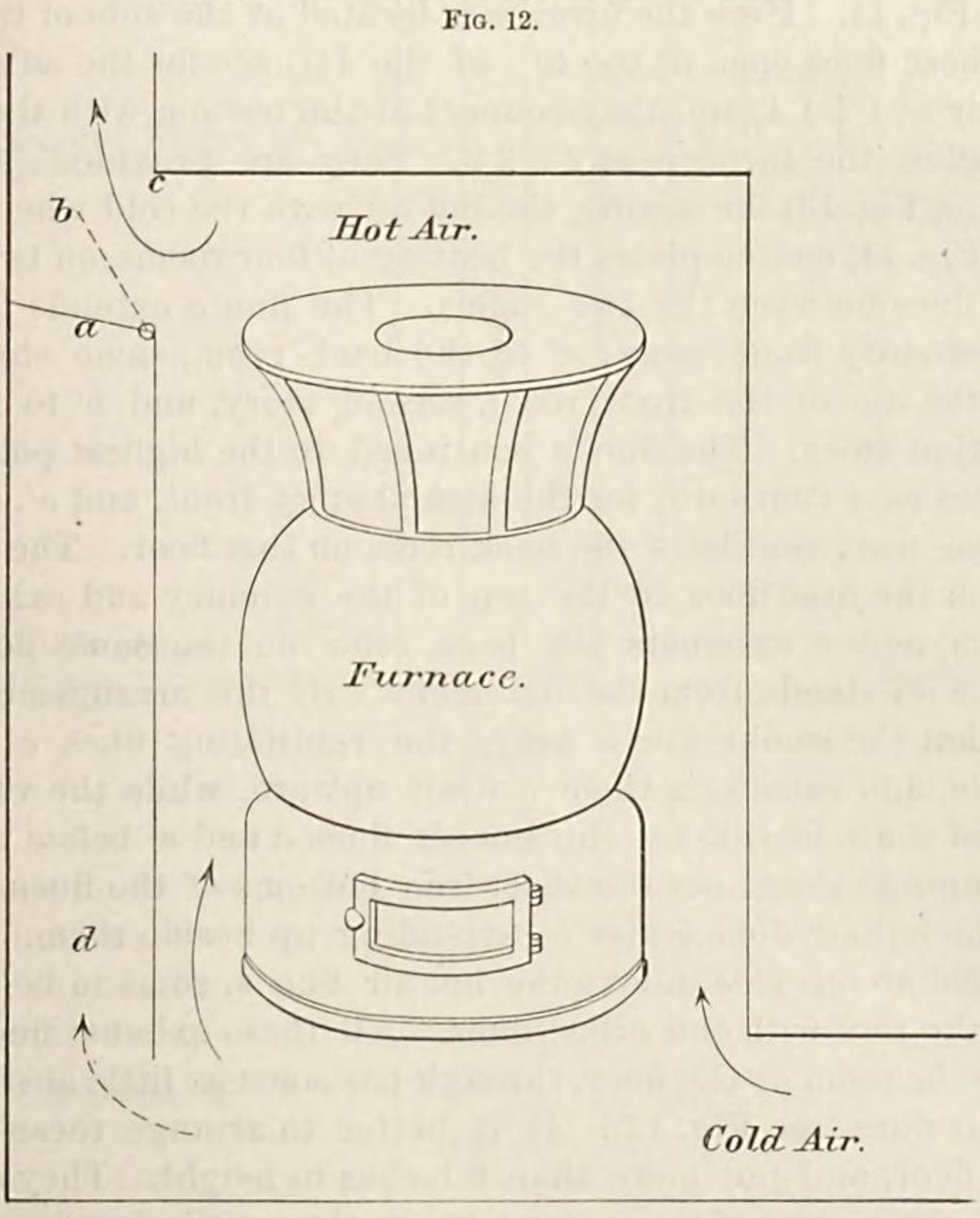

FIG. 13.

There is abundant reason for admitting the warm air from the flue at least 8 feet from the floor. If the air is admitted through a register in the floor, it immediately rises to the top of the room; in passing up it causes a draft or movement of the air in the room, which interferes with the best distribution of the fresh air throughout the room, and which is unpleasant, if not unhealthy, to the pupils near the register; and the air is not admitted so fast as it is through the flue at least 8 feet from the floor, and, worst of all, the dust and smells from dirty shoes over a register in the floor contaminate badly the air entering the room.

THE EXHAUST.

As already stated, the air should ordinarily be exhausted near the floor. It never needs to be exhausted from any other part of the room if the fresh air is admitted near the top of the room as has just been described. In order that the exit may be as rapid as the influx of the air, the exhaust or ventilating flue should be as large as the hot-air flue; and it does not need to be any larger, because the hot air is more rarefied than the colder air, which goes out near the floor. Some means of heating these exhaust or ventilating flues is necessary in order to produce a draft. A compact method of securing this exhaust is illustrated in Fig. 14. Here the furnace is located at the side of the hot-air flues. These flues open at the top of the furnace for the admission of the hot air at 1 1 1 1, and they connect at the bottom with the cold air supply below the furnace at 2 2 2 2. They are provided (at 1) with dampers (*a*, Fig. 13) for mixing the hot air with the cold when desired. The cut (Fig. 14) contemplates the heating of four rooms, on two stories, with the flues between the two rooms. The flue *a* extends to the top of the first-story front room; *a′* to the back room, same story; *b* extends to the top of the front room, second story, and *b′* to the back room on that story. The flue *a* continued to the highest point of the roof serves as a ventilator for the second-story front, and *a′*, extended in the same way, ventilates the back room on that floor. The flue *c* extends from the first floor to the top of the chimney and exhausts the front room, and *c′* exhausts the back room on the same floor. The smoke flue *d* extends from the basement. By this arrangement it will be seen that the smoke flue *d* heats the ventilating flues *c* and *c′* on either side, and causes in them a draft upward, while the ventilating flues *e* and *e′* are heated by the hot-air flues *a* and *a′* below them (the hot air impinging against the sheet-iron bottoms of the flues *e* and *e′*), and by the hot-air flues *b* and *b′* extending up beside them. The flue *e′* is carried to one side, above the hot-air flue *b*, so as to be extended through the roof with the other flues. All these exhaust flues should open into the room at the floor, through passages as little obstructed as the hot-air flues (see Fig. 12). It is better to arrange these openings near the floor, and not more than 6 inches in height. They can often be placed in the rises of the rostrum (when the ventilating flue is behind

the teacher), or they may be placed at the bottom of a breastwork in front of the flue, and 3 or 4 inches from the wall. In front of all regis-

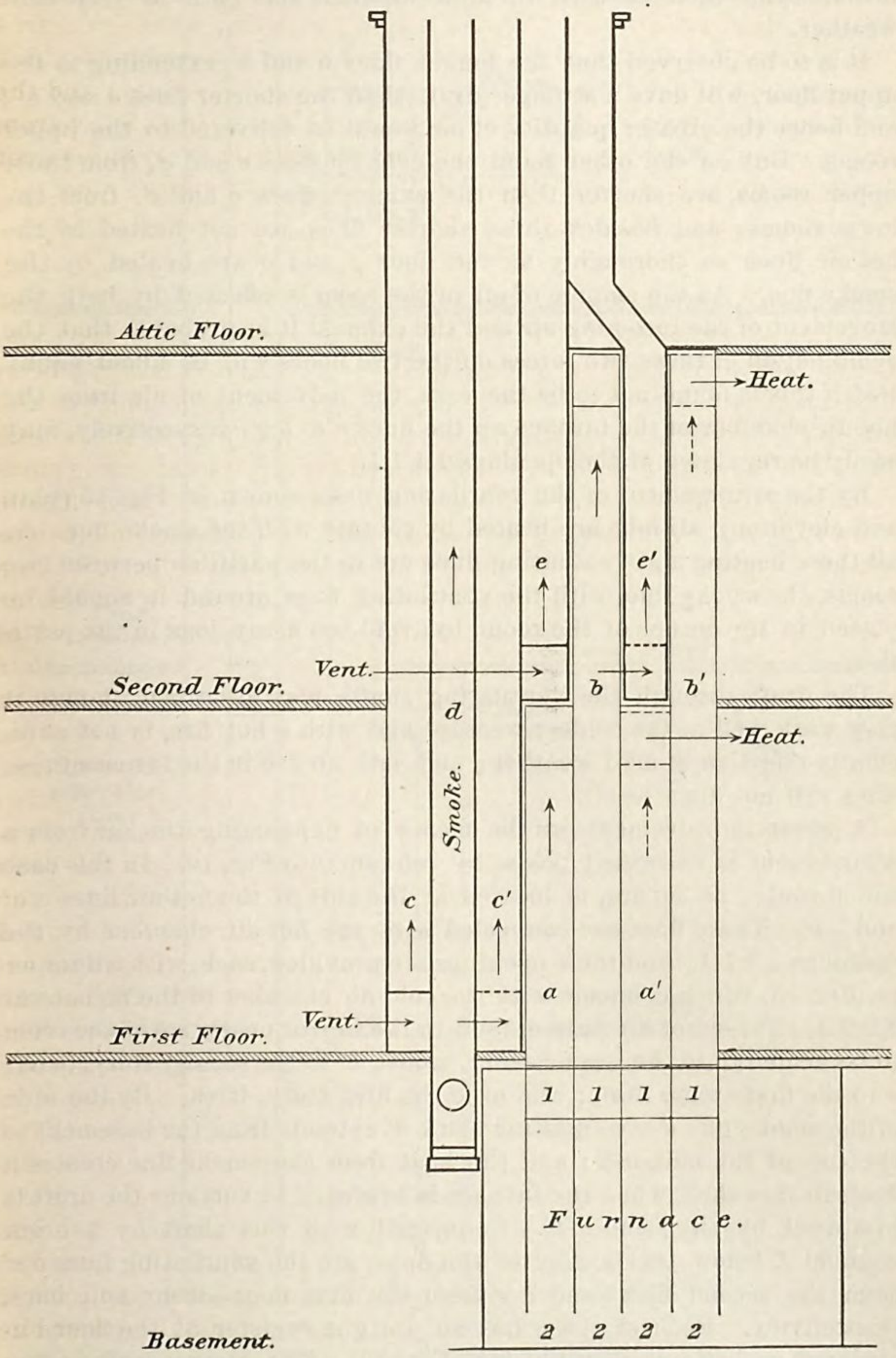

FIG. 14.

ters and windows where they are opened, tack a piece of ribbon 6 inches long to indicate the direction of the current.

Two furnaces may be placed side by side, connected with the same cold air supply, and with one hot-air chamber above. One of these furnaces can then be used in mild weather, and both in very cold weather.

It is to be observed that the longer flues *b* and *b'*, extending to the upper floor, will have a stronger draft than the shorter flues *a* and *a'*; and hence the greater quantity of air would be delivered to the upper rooms. But on the other hand the exhaust flues *e* and *e'*, from these upper rooms, are shorter than the exhaust flues *c* and *c'*, from the lower rooms; and besides, these shorter flues are not heated by the hot-air flues so thoroughly as the flues *c* and *c'* are heated by the smoke flue. As the change of air in the room is effected by both the movement of the incoming air and the exhaust it is probable that the combination of these two forces on the two floors will be about equal. But if this is found not to be the case, the movement of air from the hot-air chamber of the furnace up the flues *a a' b b'*, respectively, may easily be regulated at the openings 1 1 1 1.

By the arrangement of the ventilating flues shown in Fig. 15 (plan and elevation), all four are heated by contact with the smoke flue. As all these heating and ventilating flues are in the partition between two rooms, the smoke flue, with the ventilating flues around it, should be placed in the corner of the room, to avoid too many jogs in the partition.

The draft through the ventilating shafts just described, though it may work well in the coldest weather and with a hot fire, is not sufficiently effective in mild weather; and with no fire in the furnace these flues will not draw at all.

A great improvement in the means of exhausting the air from a school-room is described below by reference to Fig. 16. In this case the furnace, as before, is located at the side of the hot-air flues *a a'* and *b b'*. These flues are connected with the hot-air chamber by the openings 1 1 1 1; and these openings are provided, each, with a damper (*a*, Fig. 13) which connects with the cold-air chamber of the furnace at 2 2 2 2. These hot-air flues extend to the top (or nearly so) of the room to be heated, *b* to the second story, front; *b'* to the second story, back; *a* to the first story, front; and *a'* to the first story, back. By the side of the smoke flue *d* a ventilating shaft *d'* extends from the basement to the top of the chimney; and the heat from the smoke flue creates a draft in this shaft when the furnace is heated. In summer the draft is produced by the heater *H*. Connected with this shaft by a brick channel *f*, below the bottom of the flues, are the ventilating flues *e e'* from the second floor, and *c c'* from the first floor—front and back respectively. Each of these has an upright register at the floor obstructed as little as possible (see Fig. 12). The strong draft up the shaft *d'* exhausts the air from the rooms, downward through *e e'* and *c c'*. When the furnace is not fired, a fire in the heater *H* makes a continuous ventilation.

A closely fitting door of the same dimensions as the horizontal section of the four flues *c c'* and *e e'* may be inserted at the lower end of these two flues, on the front side, next to the furnace. If hinged at

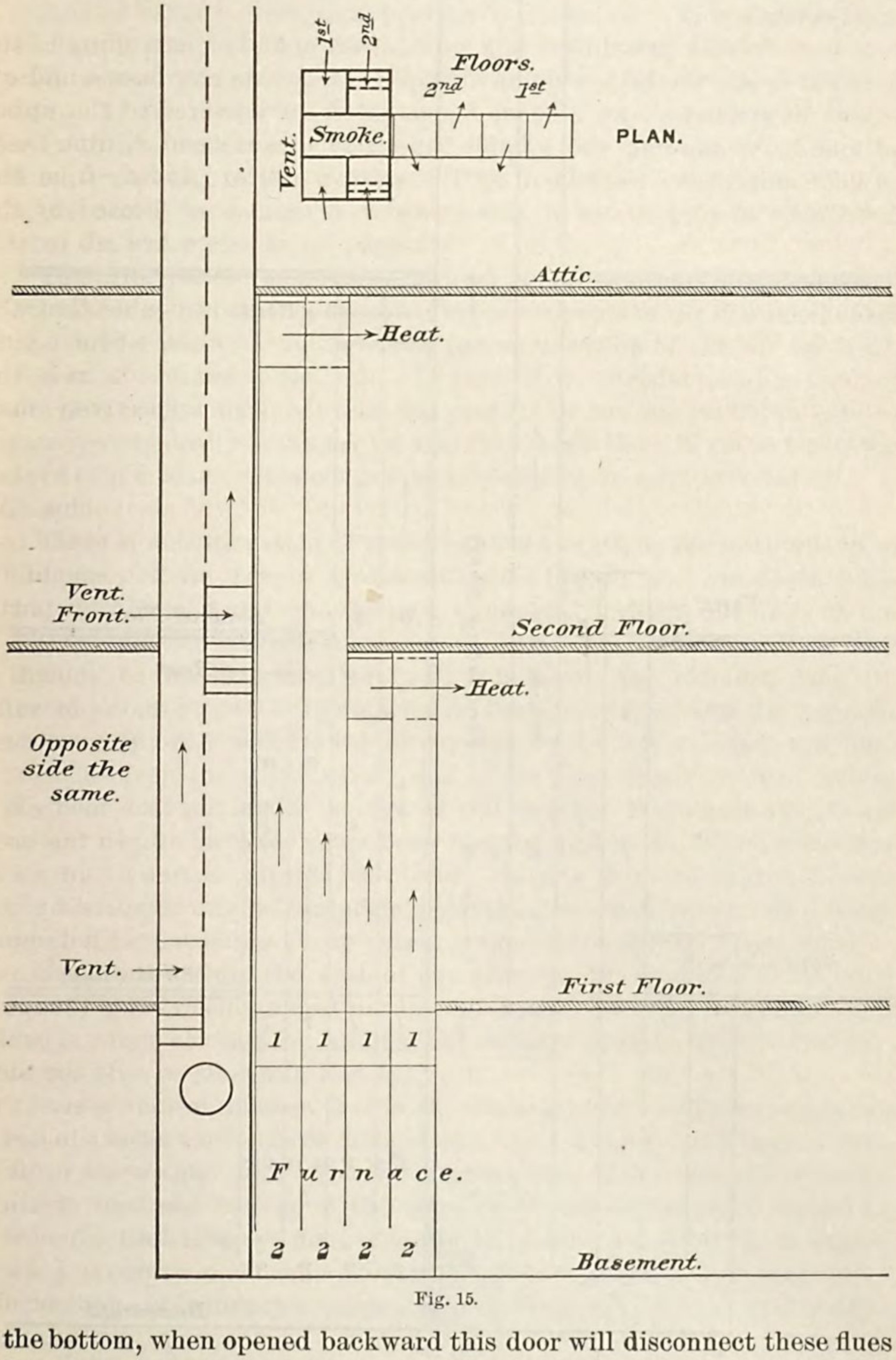

Fig. 15.

the bottom, when opened backward this door will disconnect these flues from the channel *f* and connect them with the cold-air supply of the furnace. By this means, when the rooms are not in use the air can be drawn from each of them into the furnace through the flues *e e'* and *c c'*,

and as it becomes heated it will pass to the rooms again through the flues *a a′* and *b b′*. In this case the outer-air supply of the furnace

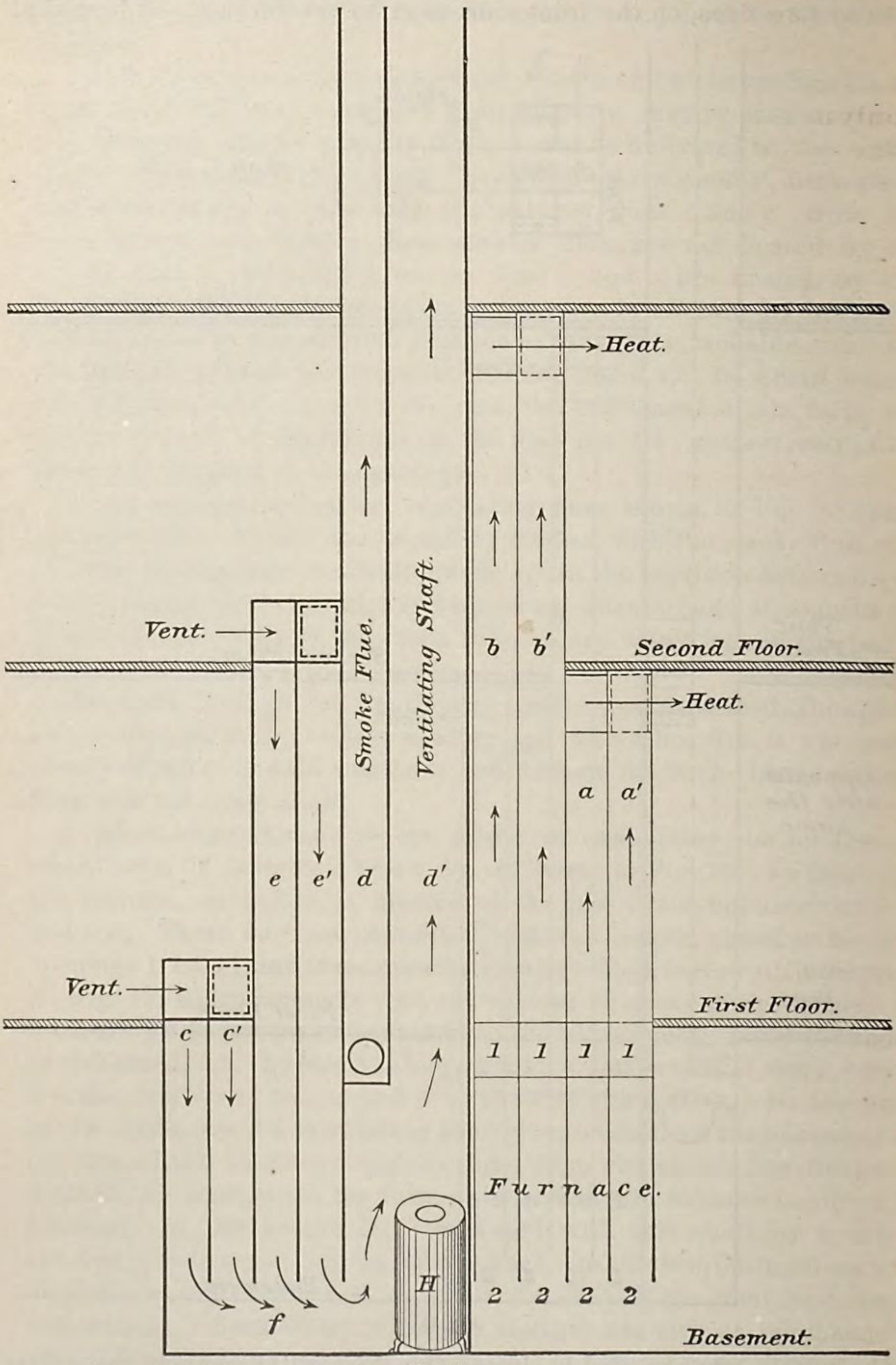

Fig. 16.

would, of course, be shut off. It goes without saying that when the rooms are occupied the air should never be reheated in this way.

Positive ventilation by means of the shaft d' and the heater H, the ability to reheat the air of the room when this is desirable, and provision for changing the air in mild weather, all show the superiority of this means of exhaust over that previously described. This arrangement of flues is compact; and for heating and ventilating a third story it is only necessary to provide the requisite number of hot-air and ventilating flues. If six rooms are to be heated in this way, a battery of two or even three furnaces may be ranged side by side and one or all may be fired, according to the weather. This downward ventilation may be made useful in another way, which will be referred to in connection with the water-closets, on page 41.

The principle of the downward draft is here thus carefully described, because it is the best way to control the movements of air in schoolhouses of considerable size, by means of the rarefication of the air by heat, and at all seasons of the year. In practice its introduction has secured the best results attained, and the control of the air currents can be more economically managed in the basement than it could be in the attic of a house. This control is as complete in mild weather as it is in cold.

There is a modification of this downward draft, as set forth above, in the plans of the Toledo schoolhouse (see Figure 37). As there illustrated, the air of the schoolroom is exhausted through openings at the baseboards and beneath the windows. It is then drawn along under the floor to the downward flue. By this means the exhaust from different points on two or more sides of the room distributes the pure air thoroughly; the withdrawal of the air of the room below the floor tends to keep the floor warm; and at the same time the draft across the floor does not strike the feet of the pupils. With this system excellent results have for years been secured at Toledo, Ohio, at Rochester, N. Y., and at many other places. It is to this system that we owe the first application of the principle of the downward draft. The movement of the incoming air by this arrangement is shown in Fig. 30.

But, considering the cost of construction, it is doubtful whether equally good results might not be obtained by placing the exhaust at a single point, at the floor, and as near as practicable beneath the hot-air register, as shown in Fig. 16.

It is a well-established fact in the warming and ventilating of rooms full of people that the air should be raised to a moderate temperature—never more than 100° F.—and admitted in large volumes, through ample flues near the top of the room; and that the exhaust should be from the floor through flues of equal or greater capacity; and, considering economy and compactness of construction, the best way to exhaust the air is through a single flue from each room, as shown in Figs. 16 and 31.

BEST VENTILATION IN A CLOSED ROOM.

But, in order to insure the best ventilation, a room should be tightly built and the doors and windows should be kept closed. If a window, a transom, or a door is left open, the movement of the air necessary to thoroughly ventilate and warm every part of the room will be disturbed, and the desired results will not be attained by any system.

In the cold climate of the Northern States, in winter, the cold glass of the windows chills the air within the room as fast as it comes in contact with the glass. If the air is at 100° and the glass at 0°, a downward current is at once produced; anyone sitting near the window feels this cold current, and usually he thinks that the cold air is blowing in at the window. If such were the case the air would, at least, be fresh and pure; but the air within, which produces the current by being chilled, is not any purer for parting with its heat. In like manner stagnant or filthy water may taste better when in an ice pitcher; but it is filthy none the less.

If one-fourth of the wall space of a room is glass, in zero weather this glass has the same effect upon the air as the same number of square feet of sheets of ice would have. The air simply parts with its heat and falls to the floor. No good ventilation can be had and much fuel is wasted. To obviate this loss and to insure good ventilation, double windows should be provided in all cold climates. The cost of these will be saved in two winters; but, if there were no saving in cost, the increased comfort of pupils would compensate for the extra expense, because the temperature of the room can then be made uniform throughout. And it is a mistake to suppose that double windows are needed only on the north or the west side. The cold winds generally blow from that direction, east of the Rockies, it is true, and hence the windows are needed more on that side; but the air of the room is chilled on a cold day by the glass on the other sides nearly as much as on the north. (See p. 51.)

HOT AIR, STEAM, AND HOT WATER.

Opinions differ as to which is the best of these means of heating a schoolroom. For small houses the hot-air furnace is unquestionably best, provided always that it is of ample size and that it is never heated to redness. It requires less care than steam. By it the room can be heated in a shorter time, and after school there is less waste of fuel. A prime consideration in heating a schoolhouse is that the rooms are used only 5 or 6 hours of the 24. We require a large amount of heat for those few hours and very little for the remaining 18 or 19 hours. With a proper furnace a brisk fire for 2 or 3 hours before school will heat the rooms to 70 degrees, and after the close of school at 3 or 4 o'clock a low fire through the night will keep them sufficiently warm, especially if the ventilating flues are conducted into the cold-air box.

In mild weather also the fires can be kept low and the amount of heat can be easily regulated.

With large buildings, on the other hand, a single large boiler will furnish steam for the whole, and the fire is all in one place. The steam can be conducted to radiators at the bottom of the hot-air flues in any part of the building, and at these points the radiators act each like a hot-air furnace. It is best in all cases to mass these radiators as much as possible, and with flues leading up from them, as in Fig. 16, but in this case it is better to have the radiators for each room in a separate box, and all these boxes connected with the same cold-air supply. A brick chamber, supplied with fresh air like a furnace, may be constructed with flues on the back side opening at the top of the chamber for the hot-air supply and at the bottom connected with the cold air. The damper *a*, Fig. 17, when closed permits the free passage of hot air up the flue and into the schoolroom, and when moved to *b* a part of the hot air is shut off and the cold air from *d* will mix with it. This is the same construction which is shown in Fig. 13 for a furnace. Within this brick chamber a box of galvanized iron is constructed opposite each flue and extending to the top of the chamber; the bottom of the box is a foot or two from the bottom of the chamber, and is made with an adjustable opening for the admission of fresh air. The front of the box is distant from the front of the chamber far enough to allow the janitor to pass along, and this front opens on hinges. Within each of these boxes are two coils of radiating pipes, each with a separate shut-off. It will be seen that in this way one or both coils for each room may be heated, according to the weather, and each room is heated independently of the others.

This construction applies equally to hot-water apparatus if that should be preferred.

Direct radiation by either steam or hot water may do for corridors; a coil may be placed beneath a platform, in a ventilated apartment, for warming the feet. But this means of heating a schoolroom is open to the same objection as the common stove. It may be useful to supplement the indirect heat in the coldest weather, but an additional coil in the box described in Fig. 17 is both better and cheaper for the extra heat. A radiator in the room may be surrounded by a jacket connected with the outer air like the jacket stove, p. 17. But the contact of the cold air is apt to cause snapping of the pipes, so that this device is not advisable.

This snapping of the pipes is a great objection to steam heat, but, when skillfully put in and especially when the coils are dispersed as in Fig. 17, very little trouble will be experienced from this source. The most serious objection to steam heat is the difficulty of regulating it in mild weather, but even here the mixing of the cold air, as in Fig. 17, prevents all trouble in the schoolroom and reduces the difficulty to a mere waste of coal. There is one further objection: no heat is derived from a steam-heating apparatus till after the water in the boiler is

raised to 212° and steam begins to form. The remedy is for the janitor to make an early start.

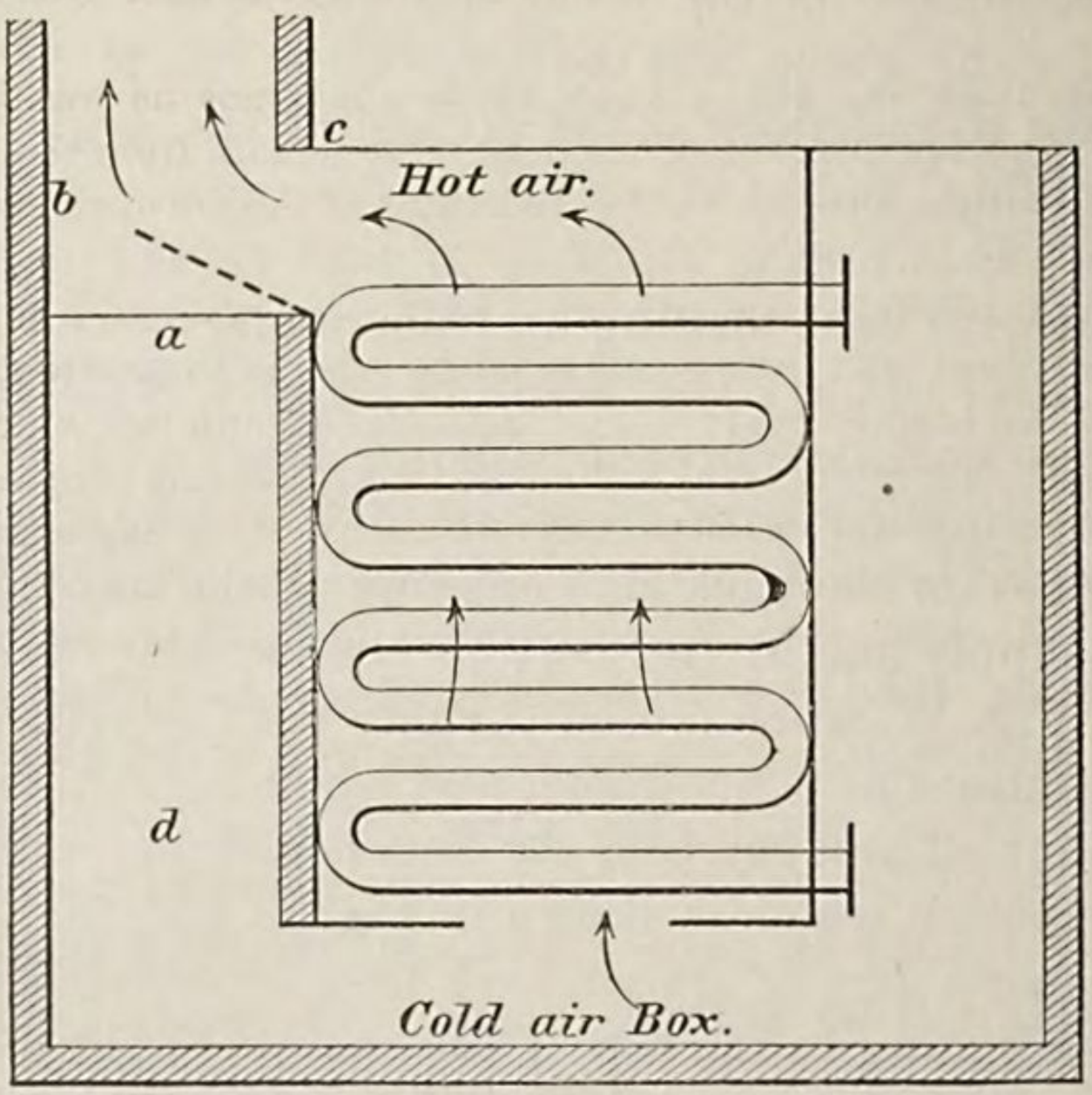

FIG. 17.—End view.

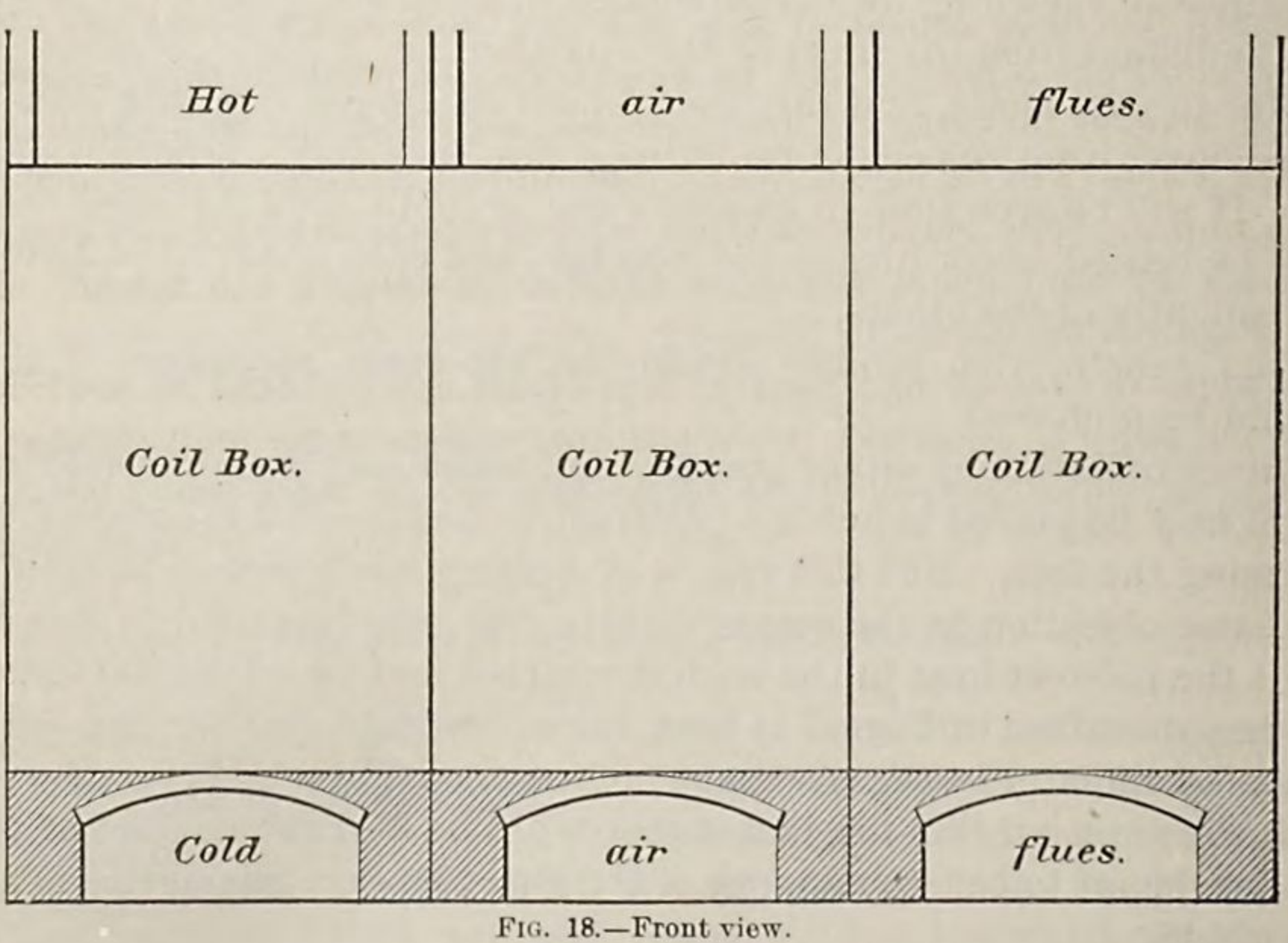

FIG. 18.—Front view.

THE SPACE AND AMOUNT OF AIR PER MINUTE PER PUPIL.

In 1882 a commission of experts was appointed to report upon the school buildings in the District of Columbia. The following are their conclusions:

1. That all sides of the [school] building shall be freely exposed to light and air; for which purpose they shall not be less than 60 feet distant from any opposite building.

2. That not more than three of the floors—*better only two*—shall be occupied for classrooms.

3. That in each classroom not less than 15 square feet of floor area shall be allowed to each pupil.

4. That in each classroom the window space shall not be less than one-fourth of the floor space, and the distance of the desk most remote from the window should not be more than one and one-half times the height of the top of the window from the floor.

5. That the height of the classroom should never exceed 14 feet.

6. That the provisions for ventilation should be such as to provide for each person in a classroom not less than 30 cubic feet of fresh air per minute, which amount must be introduced and thoroughly distributed without creating unpleasant drafts or causing any two parts of the room to differ in temperature more than 2° F. or the maximum temperature to exceed 70° F. The velocity of the incoming air should not exceed 2 feet per second at any point where it is liable to strike on the person.

7. That the heating of the fresh air should be effected by indirect radiation.

8. That all [wardrobes or] closets for containing clothing or wraps should be thoroughly ventilated.

The importance of the last of these recommendations may be noted here for want of a more appropriate place. Both for the comfort of pupils on returning from school, and for the sake of pure air in the schoolrooms, all the wraps, overshoes, hats, caps, and umbrellas, and stockings on stormy days (an extra pair being kept at school for a change), should be deposited in a well-ventilated and heated room. In large buildings a part of the basement may be used for this purpose; and in schools for large children, a small, separate, and well-ventilated closet, about 12 by 18 inches, with a door and lock, should be supplied for each pupil. With smaller children, who need the oversight, or the assistance, of the teacher, the cloakrooms should adjoin the schoolroom. See Figs. 43, 46, 52, 54, 60.

It appears that about 200 cubic feet of air space should be provided for each pupil; the number of square feet of floor space for each should be 15. A schoolroom 30 by 25 by 13 feet would then seat about 40 pupils. For each of these, 30 cubic feet per minute of fresh warm air should be supplied; and the same quantity, of course, should be withdrawn from the room. All the air in the room would be changed in ten minutes. This air should not move at a greater velocity than 2 feet per second, or 120 feet per minute, where it is liable to strike the person. Eight feet or more above the floor it may move with greater velocity, or 200 feet a minute. This requires an opening of about 6 square feet, or 2 by 3 feet; and this opening would discharge easily a vertical flue of 2 by 2 feet, horizontal section (Fig. 11).

In cold weather, when the difference in weight of the warm air and the cold is greatest, this velocity can easily be attained. In mild weather, however, the result is less positive. But in mild weather there is less difficulty about ventilation. The windows may be thrown open on warm days.

But to make this movement of air positive, and to remove all possibility of failure, the air may be moved by a fan, or blower. This can

be so constructed that it may either force the air into all the chambers (Fig. 17) from a single fresh-air supply, and deliver the requisite number of cubic feet per minute to each room, or it can be made to pull the air from each room through the exhaust flues or up the shaft as in Fig. 16, if all these flues are connected with a single shaft.

In forcing the air into the room, through the radiators, it is found, first, that disagreeable drafts are caused, and that the air moves too rapidly to the opposite side of the room and along the ceiling; and, secondly, it is found that only about one-half of the warm air delivered to a room goes out through the ventilator. If the fan is used, on the other hand, to pull the air from the room through the exhaust flues, a much smaller quantity of air enters through the warm-air flues than is withdrawn through the exhaust; the balance finds its way into the room, unheated, through the doors and windows.

In order, then, to produce absolute perfection, and to deliver 30 cubic feet of warm air through the flue at the top of the room, and to withdraw an equal amount through the exhaust flue, two fans would have to be used, of equal capacity, and moving on the same shaft, or with uniform velocities; and this construction would not be difficult. But even here there would be this element of uncertainty; that the air from many rooms being withdrawn through a single shaft, more air, at a greater velocity, might be exhausted from one room than from another; and the same difficulty would occur with the warm air. Nothing short of a separate flue for each room, both for the supply and for the exhaust, and a blower in each to deliver and exhaust the required volume of air, would secure this absolute perfection. In addition to this, the temperature of the incoming air would need to be kept at the proper degree by some kind of an automatic regulator. Or, instead of the separate flues and fans for each room, the air could be forced in from one source by a single fan, and exhausted by another through a single shaft, as at first described; and the quantity of air passing through each register might be controlled by a governor placed in the flue and controlling the damper. Such an apparatus would not be difficult to construct.

But it is doubtful whether this supply of air needs to be reduced to so fine a point. With a heated shaft, as shown in Fig. 16, and with heated air from furnaces, as shown in that figure, or from steam coils, as shown in Fig. 17, the results are probably as nearly perfect as this generation is prepared for.*

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* A powerful heater is shown in Figs. 66–71.

The care and expense of the machinery for driving a fan are considerable; the apparatus is liable to break down frequently, and a skilled workman is required to manage it. By a careful estimate of a skilled architect it would require 800 feet of 1¼ inches steam pipe for each box (Fig. 17) to supply 30 cubic feet per minute at 100° for each pupil, in a room of 40, at zero weather, and with 5 pounds of steam pressure.

II.—DRAINAGE AND LAVATORIES.

HOW TO SECURE GOOD DRAINAGE.

Where there is a water supply great danger to health is liable to be caused by imperfect plumbing and sewerage, especially if the closets are in the school building or in the basement, or in an annex connected with the basement. Traps to wash basins are liable to siphon and allow sewer gas to escape into the closets. The best of closet bowls, in a schoolhouse, are liable to become clogged by pieces of paper, apple cores, and other substances which children will throw into them. Urinals especially are frequently a source of disagreeable odors. To avoid exposure it is important that these conveniences should be kept warm, and that they should be reached without going into the open air. The greatest care should therefore be taken, both in their construction and in their daily inspection.

All drain pipes from closets and wash basins should be extended through the roof. All traps should be ventilated so as to be non-siphoning. If closet bowls are used they should be of the simplest construction. Any complicated apparatus is liable, and likely, soon to get out of order. It will not do to trust pupils to flush the closets; and almost any automatic apparatus for flushing them is likely to become inoperative. If such bowls are used they should be flushed at recess by the janitor, or by a constant flow of water during that time; and for the rest of the time of school session, when they are in occasional use, there should be an intermittent flush. The same is true of the ordinary urinals, even the best.

For schools, the Parsons trough water-closet (Figs. 32–35) is better than ordinary bowls, because it is not easily clogged. It is made in sections, and as many sections may be used together as are needed. It should be fitted with separate seats shutting close at the top, and with partitions to keep the closets separate; and each closet should have a door raised 3 or 4 inches from the floor. The space below the seats should be ventilated by connecting it with a shaft having a strong draft, like that in Fig. 16. During recess the water should be turned on; at other times the tank empties itself once in 5 or 10 minutes. The peculiar form of the bottom allows a small quantity of water to stand in each of the sections; and the flow cleans out the trough thoroughly. Beneath and behind the trough there should be no woodwork; the floor

should be made of brick or cement, and the back of slate. It is better to have the partitions between the closets also made of slate. There is then no woodwork except the seats, and these should be frequently painted, or oiled if made of hard wood.

THE DRY CLOSET.

In many schoolhouses a system of dry closets, so called, has been in use many years with the most satisfactory results. Where there is no water supply, they are unqualifiedly superior to any rival sanitary appliance; and those most familiar with their working regard them as superior to any kind of water-closets for school use.

In these closets the deposits are dried by the constant passage of a current of air, through the vault and up a heated flue. The construction of the vault being fire-proof, the contents are burned occasionally, or they may be removed if desired.

It is much more economical to conduct the vitiated air of the school rooms from the bottom of the ventilating flues through the dry-closet vaults, and thence up the shaft. The air from the schoolrooms is warmer than the external air; and it therefore dries the excreta more rapidly. The means for doing this is illustrated by Fig. 19. It has been claimed that with such a connection of the vault with the flues from the schoolrooms, there is danger of back-drafts. But in practice this does not occur, as is stated in the extract from the Wisconsin report, Design 12, and in hundreds of places. But if such a danger should be feared, it can easily be guarded against by a shut-off, and by connecting the end of the vault with the outer air. See K in Fig. 19.

Of these closets one writer says:

> The theory of dry closets is very simple. The practical application is simple and efficient. Instead of hiding away in pits and sinks—traps and snares for the unwary—or slushing miles of filth into rivers of pollution, and passing it from hand to hand, the giant is to be strangled in its cradle by the constant watchfulness of draft and evaporation.
>
> When every house shall have a shaft to evaporate its filth; when the human brain shall set down to cheapen and render efficient this system, then sewer and vault will be the adjuncts of the drying process.

Another writer says:

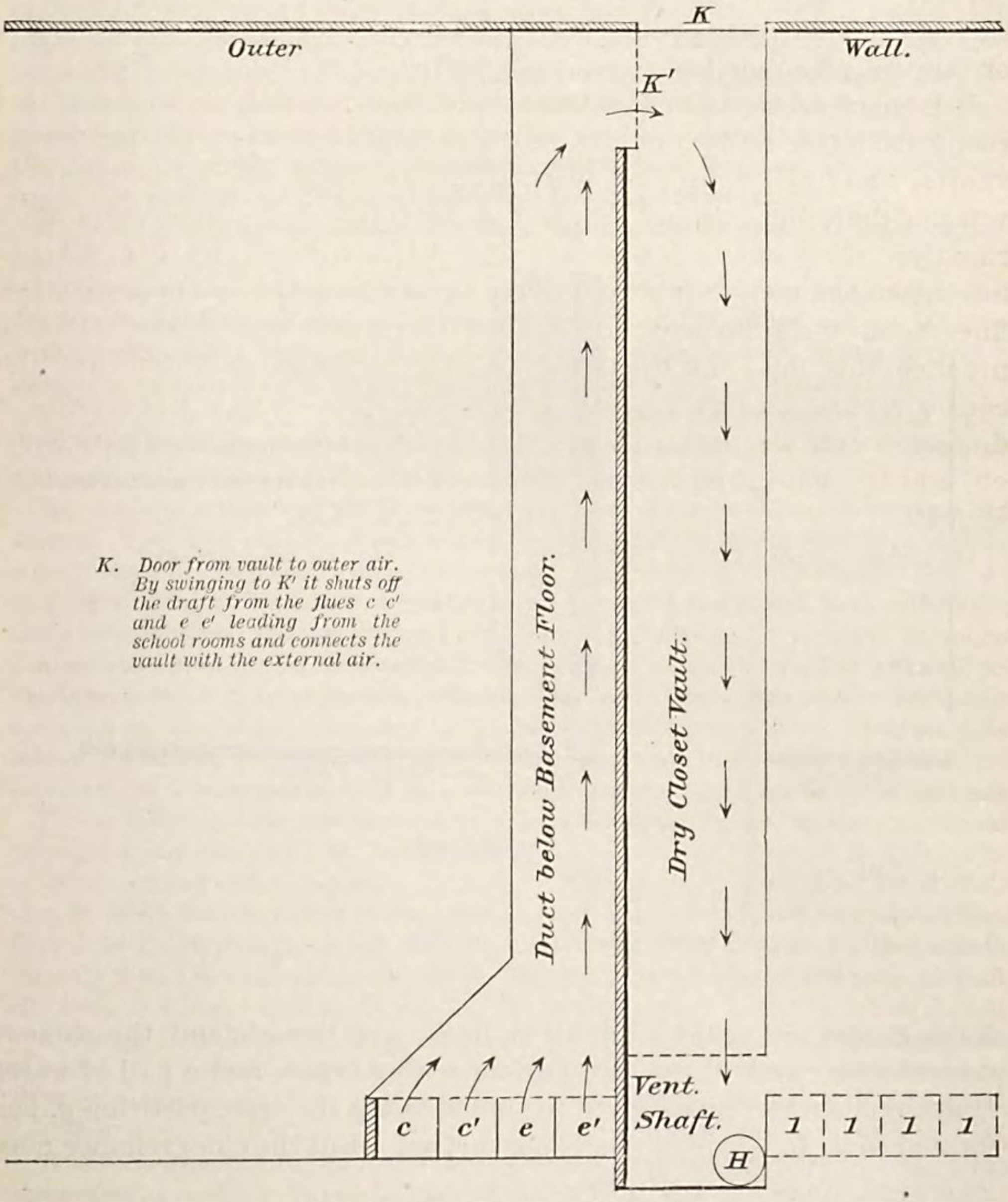
> These closets are compact, taking up about the same space as water-closets. For closets built in basements, the foundation is a bed of cement, and the walls of the pit for retaining the deposit are of brick laid in cement. The construction is such that in no case can the urine (or any of the contents of the closet) come in contact with any wood surface. All the surfaces exposed are such that no material can be saturated with the moisture; therefore there is at no time any perceptible odor, and when burned out, the pit is as clean as when new. The excrement is deposited on a perforated false bottom, or screen, which allows all moisture to fall to the bottom of the pit. This not only separates the solid from the liquid, but has the additional advantage of presenting three surfaces to the desiccating current of air passing through the

closet. In the direct line of the current of air entering the pit, is placed a heater for raising the temperature of the air-current, when the atmosphere is charged with moisture; as on rainy days. In the boy's closets in schoolhouses, or wherever closets are to be used by males only, we provide a ventilated urinal, in which to prevent odors from rising, a constant current of air (which is afterwards used for desiccating the contents of the closet) is passed downward over the metal or stone surface of which the stalls are constructed.

The structure of these closets is shown in Figs. 36–41, and their application in schoolhouses is shown in Figs. 42, 45, 50, and 53.

The greatest difficulty in school sanitation has been experienced with urinals. They need constant and careful attention, or they diffuse foul odors.

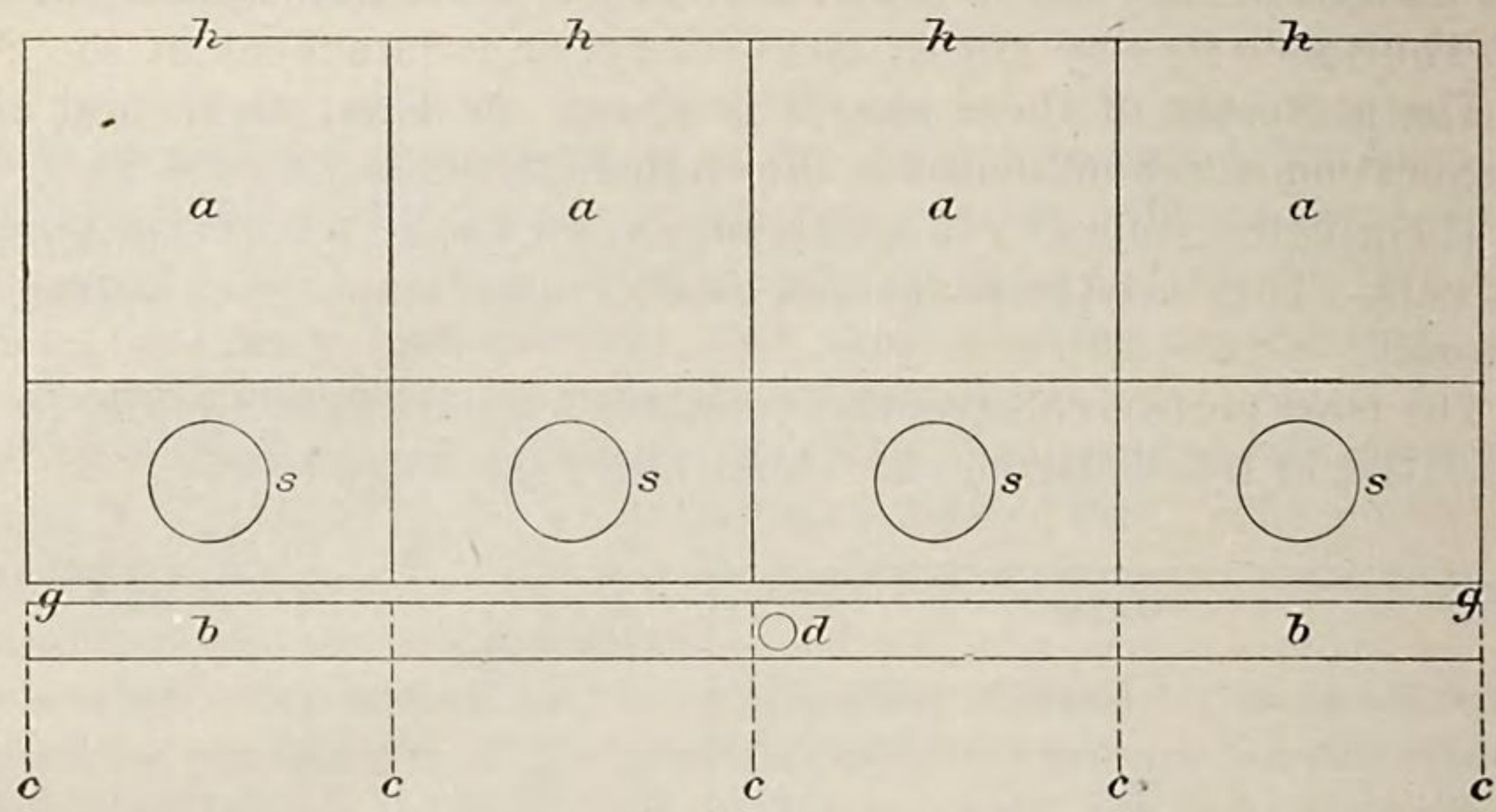
The most perfect construction yet noticed is illustrated by Fig. 20. A variation of this construction is shown in Figs. 39 and 40.



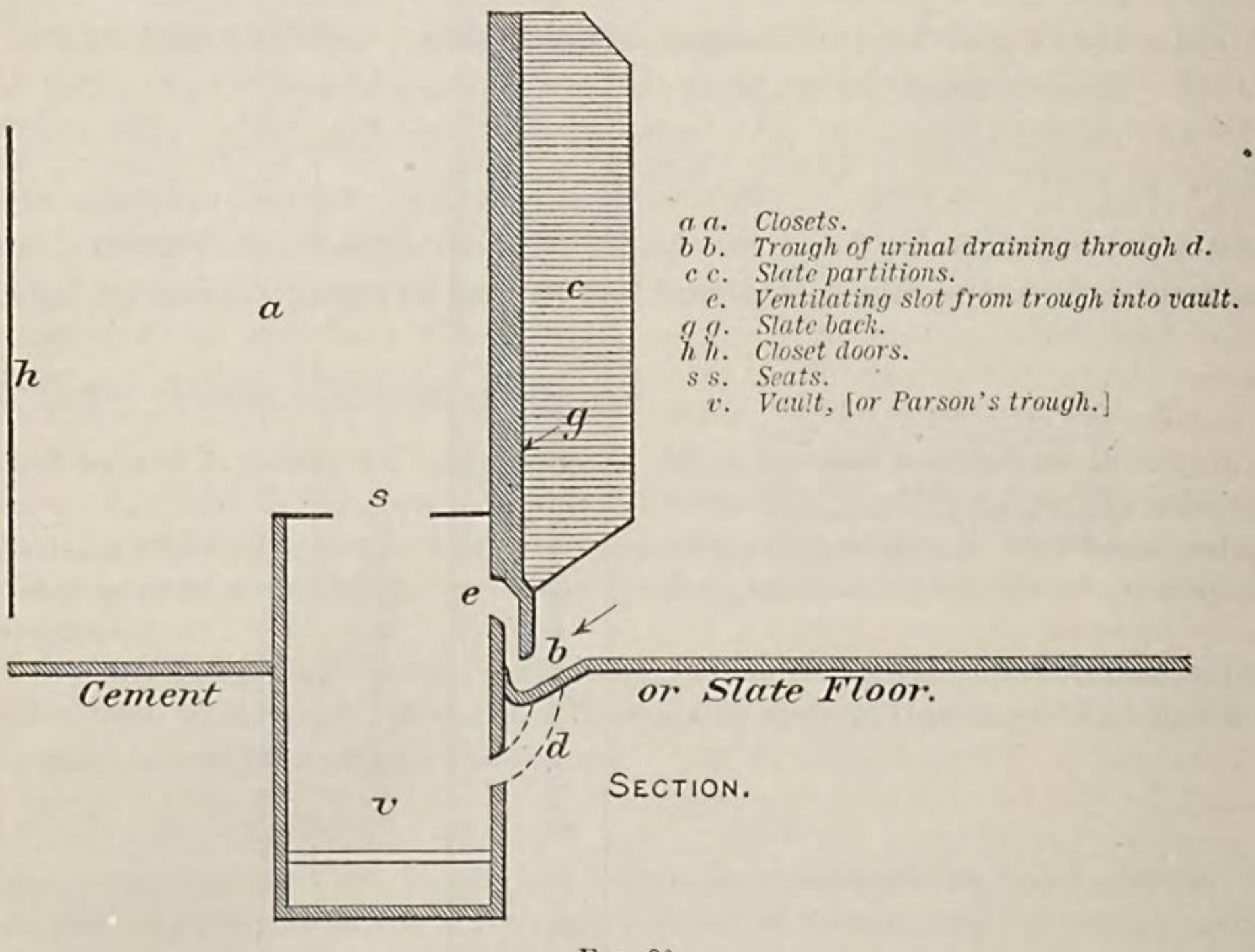
K. Door from vault to outer air. By swinging to K' it shuts off the draft from the flues c c' and e e' leading from the school rooms and connects the vault with the external air.

FIG. 19—Plan with Dry-closet Vault.

The floor of both the closets and the urinals should be made of slate or Portland cement. The whole apparatus should be thoroughly washed every day. The superiority of this apparatus consists in its simplicity. There is no wood to become saturated, no place to clog, and nothing to



PLAN.



SECTION.

FIG. 20.

wash except the smooth partition, back, and trough, and the stone or cement floor; and all this can be done with a broom and a pail of water. If desired, a water pipe can be extended along the slate partition *g*, perforated so as to sprinkle the whole surface. But the chief reliance must be placed in the daily washing.

This kind of urinal may be used without the dry closet; and in that case the space behind the partition *g* must be connected with the ventilating flue.

In confirmation of many of the suggestions thus far made, and particularly for their inherent value, two reports are here appended.

The following, by Dr. H. M. Quinby, superintendent of the State Lunatic Hospital at Worcester, Mass., was written at the request of the school committee of that city, November, 1888:

Ventilation implies a constant supply of fresh air sufficient for the prompt removal or the proper dilution of any impurities likely to occur in the air we breathe. The amount of air necessary to effect this object varies with the amount and kind of impurities present. In our dwellings the chief source of contamination comes from the processes of respiration and combustion, although if our homes be faulty in construction or neglected, other and still greater impurities may be present as the result of the disintegration and decay which is constantly going on in all organized substances. These latter impurities, however, can readily be guarded against by cleanliness and by the prompt disposal of all effete matter before the process of decay sets in. The question, therefore, which is here presented for solution is one of prevention rather than of removal and belongs to another branch of sanitary science, leaving to ventilation its proper office of protecting us from those constant and unavoidable impurities which result from respiration and bodily exhalations.

Expired air is composed chiefly of watery vapor, carbonic acid (CO_2), and organic matter.

Many regard the carbonic acid as the noxious principle in this compound, but from the fact that atmospheric air with even 2 per cent. of CO_2 added can be breathed without discomfort or injury, it is evident that carbonic acid, unless present in greater quantities than is usually found even in the worst v ntilated apartments, is not injurious to health. It is probable, therefore, that the poisonous agent in expired air must be sought for in the organic matter given off at a high temperature and saturated with moisture—the essentials for rapid decay.

The late investigations of Brown-Sequard and d'Aarsonval go to confirm this theory. They find that the lungs of man, the dog, and the rabbit produce, normally, an extremely active poison which is eliminated continually with the expired air. According to those writers, this substance is apparently an alkaloid, and is probably the principle which renders confined air dangerous.

Absolutely pure air is, undoubtedly, essential for the most complete physical development, but it is nevertheless probable that our systems may become tolerant of a certain amount of impurity, and in this, as in other cases, receive no appreciable injury therefrom, provided the dose be not too great or too often repeated, and especially if it be supplemented by a considerable daily exposure to the outside air.

The question arises, therefore, as to where the danger line begins. Upon this point, the rule laid down by Dr. Parkes in his Manual of Practical Hygiene is the most simple and easily applied. He says, "That, without attempting too much, it may be fairly assumed that the quantity of air supplied to every inhabited room should be great enough to remove all sensible impurity, so that a person coming directly from the external air should perceive no trace of odor or difference between the room and the outside air in point of freshness."

Although the above rule is of great practical utility in determining whether a room is well—or ill—ventilated, it furnishes us no means of measuring the exact amount of impurity present, or of estimating the quantity of air necessary to produce the required degree of freshness.

When we attempt to subject the air of a room to chemical analysis, we find that the processes necessary for estimating the organic matter are long and complicated,

and that they seldom insure exact or satisfactory results. The carbonic acid, on the other hand, is easily determined, and although it contributes but little towards vitiating the air we breathe, it bears a constant relation to the organic matter present, and may therefore serve in estimating the more important impurity. Taking the CO_2 as a measure, we find that the organic matter begins to be perceptible to our senses when the carbonic acid of respiration reaches two parts in ten thousand. When 2 per cent. of CO_2 is present, the air becomes exceedingly offensive.

The quantity of carbonic acid which a person exhales, varies with his age, weight, and condition. According to Dr. Parkes's estimate, an adult male in a state of repose, weighing, say, 160 pounds, gives off 0.7 cubic feet of CO_2 per hour; an adult female (120 pounds), 0.6 cubic feet; children (80 pounds), 0.4 cubic feet; amounts which may be largely increased, and even doubled, during active exertion.

If an adult male exhales 0.7 cubic feet of carbonic acid per hour, he should have, according to the above standard, an hourly supply of 3,500 cubic feet of fresh air to replace that vitiated by respiration, and if children exhale 0.4 cubic feet per hour, the supply of air necessary for them would be 2,000 cubic feet.

Some authorities hold that these estimates apply only to apartments which are occupied continuously, and that in schoolrooms, on account of the shortness of the session and the opportunity for frequent ventilation through open windows, this amount may be considerably reduced without endangering the health of the pupils. None of these authorities, however, think it safe to reduce the amount of fresh air below 20 cubic feet per minute. * * *

We do not regard 20 cubic feet of air as providing anything more than tolerable ventilation. There would still be a very sensible amount of impurity in the schoolrooms, and the same care that is now used in assisting ventilation by open windows would still be necessary. Although this amount of air is probably as much as it is possible to provide in old schoolhouses, without too great expense for alterations, it is, in our opinion, much less than is desirable. In all new buildings, provision should be made for a supply of from 25 to 30 cubic feet per minute for each scholar.

Applying the above conclusions to the schoolrooms in question, we find that a room 32 by 32 by 10 feet, containing an average of 40 pupils, would require 48,000 cubic feet of air per hour; that is, that the entire air of the room should be changed every 15 minutes.

At a temperature of 60° and under, air can not be admitted at a greater velocity than 2 feet per second without creating unpleasant drafts. At this rate and temperature it would require 7 square feet of clear opening to supply the required amount of air for the above room, or eight of our common 12 by 18 inch valve registers.

From this, we conclude that all of the methods of ventilation indicated in the circular are alike faulty, and that they differ only in degree. Just how faulty the ventilation is in each case, it is difficult to decide from the data at our disposal; but it is a question whether one-fourth of the amount of air necessary for even fair ventilation is secured when all the available inlets are kept open to the fullest extent that temperature and drafts allow.

It may not be possible to prove in every case that the health of the pupils is injured by such a system, but the fact holds, nevertheless, that there is always great danger from breathing air vitiated by the products of respiration. This danger varies according to the amount of impurities present and the length of exposure. When the exposure is only for a short period, headache, dullness, and slight febrile action may alone result. The cause being removed, these symptoms pass off with greater or less rapidity according to the recuperative powers of the person affected. But when the exposure is frequently repeated, these symptoms become more persistent, and even if no actual disease results therefrom, the whole tone of the scholar's system may be so lowered as to interfere seriously with his physical development, and to render him less capable of throwing off any disease to which he may hereafter be exposed.

It is amply proved by observations upon soldiers in crowded barracks, prisoners in jails, and animals in close and unventilated stables, that when a considerable number of persons are confined for a length of time in close and unventilated apartments, they soon loose color and strength, and become readily susceptible to acute and chronic lung diseases.

The poison resulting from the act of respiration, unlike that of diphtheria and typhoid, acts slowly and presents at the outset no alarming symptoms, nor such as are likely to attract the attention of the casual and untrained observer. In many cases, nevertheless, it is undoubtedly the chief factor in laying the foundation of future lung disease, and especially of consumption.

In regard to question 6 [whether pupils of 6 require the same amount of ventilation as those of 14 years of age], there seems to be a certain diversity of opinion among sanitary writers. De Chaumont, basing his opinion upon the difference in the amount of carbonic acid given off by children of 6 and youths of 15 years, would place three times as many of the former in a given space as of the latter.

Dr. Parkes thinks that children, on account of a more rapid tissue change, exhale more CO_2 in proportion to their weight, than do adults. Dr. Billings would give the same amount of air to all classes. Dr. Lincoln holds that the estimate based upon the difference in the amounts of carbonic acid expired by primary and high school pupils "is admissible only on the supposition that the ventilation is efficient. In case of defect, or apprehended defect, young children should have equal room with older ones, on the ground of their comparative inability to cope with the deleterious effects of bad air." * * *

Where water carriage is impossible, as in the country, or out-lying districts of the city, a vault of some kind is necessary; but in place of a huge receptacle intended to hold a year's deposit, the closet should be so arranged that the fecal matter can readily be disinfected with dry dirt or fine ashes, after each school session, and can be easily removed.

The late Edward S. Philbrick, a distinguished civil engineer of Boston, submitted the following in response to inquiries by the same committee:

FIRST.—THE BEST METHODS OF CONSTRUCTION AND ARRANGEMENT OF FIXTURES.

Plumbing fixtures should in all cases be arranged as compactly as possible. Those which are provided for the convenience of teachers should always be directly over one another on the separate floors, so as to be served by vertical lines of pipes for drainage and water supply. Such fixtures should be placed near but not against the exterior wall of the building, so as to be lighted and aired by a near window in this wall, but not subjected to the exposure to frost incident to being placed against the exterior wall, except on the south side of a building. The water-closets should in all cases have their traps above the floor, and have their water supplied from a small separate tank over each closet. The common "short hopper" patterns are the best for such places, and lead traps are preferable to iron ones, because smoother and cleaner. A separate trap should be provided for each closet, sink, or bowl, and each trap should have an air pipe from near its top, of same size as the wastes for all traps except those serving water-closets, which should not be less than 2 inches in diameter. These air pipes should all be branched into a vertical pipe of 3″ diameter alongside the soil pipe by Y branches, and so arranged as to drain freely, and this vertical air pipe may be branched into the soil pipe by a Y, located above the highest receptacle for drainage and extended through the roof to such a height as will guard against its obstruction by snow. The part passing through the roof should never be less than 4 inches diameter, and should always be left wide open, without bend or cowl of any kind. But if the roof be flat and accessible to children, the end of the pipe may be covered by a wire basket to prevent them from putting stones, etc., into

it. If using cast iron soil pipe it should always be of the double thickness, and should be tested for tightness by plugging the outlets and branches and filling with water to the top before applying any fixtures to it. A better class of pipe for public buildings is now made of wrought iron with screw joints, and coated with the Bower-Barff process to prevent rusting, by the Durham House Drainage Company, of Boston.

The water-closets and urinals for the school children should be located in a one-story wing or projection from the basement story of the building, in order to provide the necessary amount of light and air to insure cleanliness. The best pavement is that of Portland cement mortar, which need not be over half an inch in thickness, if spread upon a substratum of concrete 3 or 4 inches thick, composed of American hydraulic cement and gravel, as usually prepared for cellars. The Portland cement may be mixed with three times its bulk of sand, but the latter should be either the best beach sand or well washed to remove dust and clay if from pits or natural deposits. This item of washing the sand will often make all the difference between a durable surface, good for twenty years' service, and a crumbling one, never satisfactory from the first. This skimming of Portland cement mortar should be applied while the foundation is damp, and should be kept damp by sprinkling and exclusion of air drafts for a week after application. Rapid drying by a free circulation of air renders it soft and crumbling, while, if kept wet, it will be as hard as stone in a few weeks.

For water-closets in primary schools the best trough sinks, if properly attended, are probably the safest form of apparatus. The simplest form of seat is the best, but these should be easily removable for cleansing. Boys' urinals should not be provided with crockery bowls, but are better if made of plain upright slate or soapstone, with a trough at the base of the same material, and a sprinkling tube from 3 to 3½ feet above the floor, so constructed as to wet the *whole surface* of the slate below the tube when the water is let on. For children over 12 years of age separate water closets may be desired, but I consider the trough a better piece of apparatus for all classes, if carefully looked after by the attendants. If separate closets are ever used I should avoid all iron as a material in their construction, and use short crockery hoppers with lead traps above the floor. The supply of water should be drawn in this case by a 1¼-inch pipe and 2-inch valve for each closet, from a tank directly above, which can extend the whole length of the range of closets and be fed by an automatic ball cock. Children can never be depended upon to discharge the separate closets, and this has led to various mechanical devices for automatic flushing by wires or chains attached to the doors or seats. In theory these are very good things, but I have never yet seen such devices that could be depended on for many weeks at a time. When they fail they at once create a wretched nuisance, as is now to be seen in some of your schools described below. It is for these reasons that I recommend the trough system for all classes, with thorough and systematic attendance, which is the only way to secure proper flushing in public schools that I have yet seen, and can not be considered as an unreasonable tax upon the attendants.

A system of hoods and air pipes, leading from the water closets and urinals to some aspirating flue for removing the effluvia, has been generally applied in such of your school buildings as I have seen, and with various success. In order to make this system of any real value the aspirating flue should be kept well heated at all seasons of the year by a special stove. I find such an arrangement in some of your buildings. When depending on steam pipes or furnace smoke flues to supply the necessary heat for the aspirating flues, the whole system is sure to fail when most needed, viz, in moderate or warm weather, when there is no wind to remove the effluvia through open windows and when putrefaction is most rapid and the health of pupils more likely to be injured, owing to the general climatic conditions at such seasons. Ordinary summer diarrhea is then often epidemic, and dysentery becomes contagious. The application of these hoods and air pipes leading to flues that are not heated ex-

cept in winter and even then perhaps insufficiently, as I find in many of your buildings, is, in my opinion, likely to produce more harm than good, for it leads to a sense of security where it does not exist in reality, and may thus take the place of a proper attention to the cleanliness of the floors and walls, troughs, etc., on the part of the attendants.

The apparatus for the ventilation of the schoolrooms themselves next claims our attention. Since the heat supplied for comfort in winter is generally used in our climate as a motive power to secure a change of air in the rooms, the subject of ventilation is inseparably connected with that of heating. This agent may be made sufficient and produce satisfactory results in buildings having but ten or twelve rooms or less, but larger ones may with advantage use fans or blowers to move the air by mechanical force. Since other reasons exist apparently for limiting the size of your school buildings to those containing ten rooms or less, the application of such mechanical apparatus will not now be considered. The heat of the air becomes a motive power by reason of the force of gravity. Hot air is lighter than cold air and floats by its own buoyancy, while the cooler air displaces the lighter by its superior weight. It is generally accepted by physiologists that fresh air should be supplied in schoolrooms when occupied at the rate of at least 40 cubic feet per minute for each occupant. Where a smaller allowance is provided, the pupil suffers a degree of loss of vigor, indicated by sleepiness and stupor and generally impaired vitality. The system of heating by stoves or by direct steam provides no means for introducing fresh air, and is therefore not to be recommended except for halls or passages, or for supplementing in exposed places during severe weather the better system of heating by indirect steam or furnaces. Furnaces serve a good purpose for small buildings, but are not well adapted for larger ones, owing to the difficulty of distributing hot air horizontally, while steam can be supplied from a single fire and distributed for considerable distances.

By the indirect system, so called, the steam is deployed in coils of pipe in the basement underneath the rooms to be heated. These coils are encased by sheet-iron chambers to which air should be conducted by close conduits from the northern and western sides of the building through holes in the basement wall. After being heated by the steam coils the air rises in other conduits to the rooms where heat is needed. As the steam is always as hot as 212° Fahrenheit, and hotter as the pressure is increased in the boiler, a room could be heated to the desired temperature, say 65°, by introducing a small quantity of air heated to 200°, or better by a larger quantity at a lower temperature. The volume of air introduced is regulated by the size of the ducts, and these should be so proportioned as to supply the air in quantity sufficient to meet the requirement above indicated according to the number of pupils to be provided for.

The volume of air in motion should be the same, as nearly as may be, for all conditions of the weather, and the temperature regulated by the amount of steam admitted to the coils and the temperature of the same, which varies with the boiler pressure, and is, therefore, within certain limits, under the control of the fireman. In order to avoid disagreeable drafts within the rooms it is found best to introduce the heated air at a point above the heads of the inmates, say 8 feet above the floor. Its buoyancy carries it directly to the ceiling, wherever the inlet may be, and it spreads around the ceiling and descends along the coldest sides of the room. In order to insure a complete circulation and the continual and successive displacement of all the air in the room, it is best to withdraw the vitiated air from near the floor and on the same side of the room at which the hot air enters. The ducts for removing it should be rather larger than those admitting the fresh warm air in order to avoid drafts near the point of exit, and the upward movement of spent air in the ducts by which it is withdrawn must be helped by artificial means. The method easiest of application for this result is to apply one or more steam pipes within this flue, into which hot steam is admitted, and by which the flue may be heated to a degree consid-

erably above the temperature of the room to add buoyancy to the air as it escapes. It will readily be seen that if the openings for the withdrawal of the spent air are made near the ceiling the fresh air will escape by passing directly from the inlets to the outlets without the entire change of all the air of the room which we seek. Openings for outlets near the ceiling are therefore mischievous in cold weather. * * * They may be of use in summer weather, but are hardly worth providing at this season if the windows extend to a point near the ceiling, as they always should do, and if made to be opened from the top downward.

Thermometers should be supplied in every schoolroom, and the person in charge of the fires should consult them frequently and be governed by their indications.

Sixty-five to sixty-eight degrees Fahrenheit is a proper temperature for schoolrooms in winter. Particular pains should be taken, in proportioning the size of the air ducts, to accomplish the desired movement of air without creating drafts in the room. For this end the ducts should be made of sufficient size to do their work without a more rapid movement at the openings than 6 feet per second. Even a less rate is desirable.

SECOND.—THE PROPER SANITARY CARE OF SCHOOLHOUSES.

Although a good deal of attention has been directed to this subject and a marked improvement made within a few years, much remains to be done, in my opinion, to attain a proper and reasonable standard of purity in all our large cities. Cleanliness is not only of importance in its effect upon the health of the pupils, but as an agent for elevating and civilizing in its influence upon their character. Much more can be taught by example in this respect than by precept. Although the standard now generally maintained in your city, so far as I have opportunity to judge of it, may be above that to which the pupils are accustomed in their own homes in many cases, it is still susceptible of great improvement within the limits of what I consider reasonable and proper.

Modern appliances have brought conveniences under the roofs of our buildings which former generations consigned to outbuildings, and this has been justified by the use of sewers and a copious water supply, by means of which all filth can be at once removed from the premises. Such is the theory of the modern water-closet. In practice, however, it is not always remembered that all the filth should be actually put into the running water. Laxity of discipline exists to a very large extent in this respect in your schoolhouses, due probably to ignorance on the part of the janitors of the importance of a high standard of cleanliness, aggravated by a certain amount of inertia and a tendency to follow old ruts and in some cases also by defective apparatus, of which instances will be pointed out below. Possibly also the force at present employed is not sufficient for the purpose, but I am not in a position to judge of this as well as yourself.

I have spoken above of the need of good light in and around all places of easement. Where a badly lighted cellar is used the janitor readily falls into careless habits. In order to remedy this defect as far as possible at a small cost all the stone and brick walls of the basements should be whitewashed with lime as often as twice a year, and sometimes oftener, where necessary to keep the surfaces bright and pure. The wooden partitions should also be painted a light color, lemon or straw color is preferable, so that soiled places can be readily detected and cleaned and the greatest possible amount of light reflected upon all dark corners. * * *

Portland cement surfaces, as above described, are far preferable on account of the light color of the material. The concrete heretofore used was apparently made with poor materials and crumbles readily, becoming absorbent of filth and difficult to clean. There is but little use in trying to have such floors constructed by contract. The facilities for cheating in providing inferior materials and workmanship are too great to enable any reasonable amount of inspection to guaranty first-class work by contract from the class of men usually dealt with. Poor work in such places is a

waste of money. Such floors should be laid by day labor, using intelligent supervision, which can be had probably in your case by applying for help from the department of sewers and the city engineer.

All the floors about the water-closets, etc., should be washed by scrubbing brushes daily and rinsed several times daily in hot weather by using the hose, and all woodwork should be carefully washed daily with warm suds where coming in contact with the person or subject to spattering of any kind. In order to avoid too much dampness in the air while the pupils are about, these washings should be performed immediately after school hours, and the proper degree of heat maintained in cold weather to dry the surfaces as soon as possible. The use of carbolic soap is often necessary around urinals, especially when younger boys are accommodated. * * *

The use of the ventilating apparatus is often a subject of great mystery to the teachers as well as the attendants. I found the outlet valves closed in some rooms, apparently from ignorance or inadvertence, and the air consequently very oppressive, while a good draft seemed to exist, able to improve the condition of things materially soon after opening them. I think the use of these fixtures should be explained to all teachers, and they should not be allowed to close them without good reason. If any local reason exists for their disuse, it probably arises from fault of construction which should be remedied. No amount of skill will give us ventilating apparatus that will be at all times successful automatically. If not looked after by persons who understand its uses and abuses, the desired object is seldom attained, except by accident. The flushing of schoolrooms with fresh air by opening windows during recess time and after each session is generally rendered necessary by the imperfection of other means of renewal of air, and it is perhaps better understood than the management of any other apparatus. Unfortunately we have a good deal of weather in winter where this is inconvenient. It may be difficult and perhaps unreasonable to expect the enforcement of such a standard of cleanliness about water-closets in public schools as I have in view while working through the class of men now generally employed as janitors. But I think these men would do excellent work in most cases if clearly informed what is expected of them in detail and if supplied with the necessary assistance to do the actual labor required. This last can not be a severe tax upon the treasury and will be appreciated by the pupils in after life as much, I think, as any part of their instruction received at school. I mean the example of purity which should be constantly before them in these places. The desired result can never be attained till the janitors are not only carefully instructed in *detail*, but industriously *followed up* with military precision and fear of dismissal in case of neglect of duty. Some one must do this duty of inspection who has a real interest in the subject and who will take an honest pride in the result gained, but one person can cover a large number of schools, if inspecting them without notice and if vigilant in his discipline. The janitor's employment should be under his control, to make his work efficient.

III.—LIGHTING.

HOW TO SECURE PROPER LIGHTING.

The proper lighting of a schoolroom is of scarcely less importance than its heating and ventilation and its drainage; for statistics show that diseases of the eye are on the increase among school children, in consequence of poor light.

In Dr. Buk's Treatise on Hygiene, we are assured that short-sightedness, dimness and darkness of sight are increasing generally in Germany, Russia, America, and England [among children attending school], and we are assured at the same time that the defective eyesight is much greater where schoolrooms are poorly planned regarding their window arrangements.

In rural schoolhouses the best authorities seem to agree that the best location for securing light and air is to place the longer axis of the house due east and west, and to light by windows in the north and the south sides only. The objections to the east and the west exposure, for light, are that the slanting rays of the sun, in the morning and in the afternoon, strike across the room. On the south, the sun's rays are always more nearly vertical as they enter the windows; while from the north these rays never in this latitude enter the room.

Next to the north aspect, the steadiest light, as well as the greatest amount of sunshine, is derived from one due south, and while a south window receives the sun nearly all day the year round, the angle at which it enters is so great that the annoyance from it in hot weather is infinitely less than from the horizontal rays which stream through an east or west window [the latter at a low angle]. For this reason a south exposure is both cooler in summer and warmer in winter than an eastern or western one, and while it secures the largest possible aggregate of sunshine, a south window needs less shading with blinds or curtains than any other, except one facing north.

For buildings with four or more rooms on a floor, it is better that the corners of the building stand towards the cardinal points of the compass. It is of course impossible in this case that all the rooms should have the best light; but this arrangement permits the sunlight to enter every room each day of the year; and this is desirable for the chemical effect of the sunlight upon the air of the room. Rooms which the sunlight enters are more easily heated than those that have no direct rays of the sun. They are also both pleasanter and healthier.

It appears to be a well-established rule that the light should be admitted on only one side of a schoolroom, and this side at the left of the

pupils. It may be admissible, however, to admit the light partly from behind the pupils and towards their left. It would not be a bad arrangement to have three-quarters of the length of the left wall, towards the rear, and one quarter of the back wall, towards the left, occupied by windows. The main objection to this rear light is that it is directly in the teacher's face, if the teacher sits facing the pupils; but white curtains rolled from the top will prevent a large part of the glare; and the teacher need not always sit facing this light. The windows should be as near together as safe construction will permit; there should be no wall spaces between them. The window space should be one-fourth, and in no case less than one-sixth of the floor space. The windows should extend to the ceiling of the room; and no fancied architectural consideration should ever prevent this. The window sill should be at least 4 feet from the floor; and Robson, the best English authority on the subject, says that the sills should never be less than 5 feet from the floor. The best light is from above; and as this can not easily be had, the nearer we come to that the better. Light from below the pupil's eye, in a schoolroom, is injurious to the eye, and it obstructs rather than aids the vision.

The seats farthest from the windows should not be distant more than one and a half the height of the top of the window. If, then, the room is 13 feet high, the farthest seat may be only 20 feet from the window. For the purposes of lighting, the width of a room should not exeeed 25 feet; and the length should be about one and a third times the width. For its acoustic properties this is a better form than the square, or a shape more nearly a square.

The best light is, of course, that nearest the windows. The outer row of seats, then, should be placed as near the windows as they can be and allow room for an aisle wide enough for a single person to pass. On the side next to the windows the outer row may be placed against the wall, though this is not the best way, on account of the ventilation at the walls. There being no blackboards on this side there is no need of a broad aisle as there is on the back side of the room; and here the importance of double windows is again apparent (see p. 34). Without these, the outer row of seats, having the best light, are most liable to drafts in winter.

The blackboards may be placed at the back end of the room, on the side opposite the windows, and behind the teacher's platform. At this latter point several boards may be made to slide up and down, one in front of the other; or they may be so constructed as to bring into use both sides alternately. In this way exercises may be placed upon the boards and kept out of sight till ready for use. The height of the windows, already described—4 or 5 feet from the floor and reaching to the ceiling—allows the light to strike these boards at such an angle that there is but little liability of that reflection from a much used and shiny blackboard which is so painful and injurious to the eyes. This disa-

greeable reflection is often caused by low windows, and windows on different sides of the room, which produces cross-lights as well as this reflection from the blackboards.

Strong light is as likely to be injurious as too little light; and on certain days, and with the exposure of a part at least of the rooms of a large house, it is necessary to control the light entering by the windows. This should be accomplished by raising the shades from the bottom of the window. Dark holland shades,* rolling from the bottom and raised by a cord and a pulley at the top, are a better means of regulating the light than the ordinary blinds, either outside or inside. And if the sunlight is liable to strike the books or desks of the pupils, owing to the location of the room, then thin, white holland shades should also be provided, to roll from the top. The purpose of these is not to shut out the light, but to temper and moderate it. The reason for rolling the shades from the bottom is that 1 foot in height at the top of the window lights the room more than twice that space at the bottom; and the best light is that nearest the ceiling.

For the reflection of the light downward upon the desks, the ceiling should always be white. The walls of the room may be tinted, to soften the light; but the tints should not be too dark.

But shades to the windows have these objections: In summer when it is often pleasant to open the windows, they will not allow the air to pass through; they get out of order easily; they become dingy, and need replacing frequently. Outside blinds can not be reached easily from the inside; they do not shade the windows in the right way; on a schoolhouse which is unoccupied three-fourths of the time, they are more apt to get out of order than on a private dwelling. Inside blinds, also, shade the windows at the sides rather than at the top and bottom; or if made with an upper and a lower half moving independently, either one-half, or the whole window, if any, must be closed; and a more serious objection to them is that, with a mass of windows close together, they are in the way, and they obstruct the light.

The best known arrangement for shading windows in schoolrooms is that illustrated in Figs. 21, 22, and 23. These sliding blinds may be raised so as to close any part of the window that may be desired; they allow the air to pass through in summer; they are not in the way, and they may all be lowered so as to leave open the whole window space. In simplicity of construction and operation they are admirably fitted for school use. They can easily be removed for cleaning, and they never need be swiveled. But with these blinds the thin white holland shades to roll from the top may be necessary in some of the rooms, for softening the light.

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*The best color is some light shade of lavender, or a mild tint of green. The tints of yellow are not good.

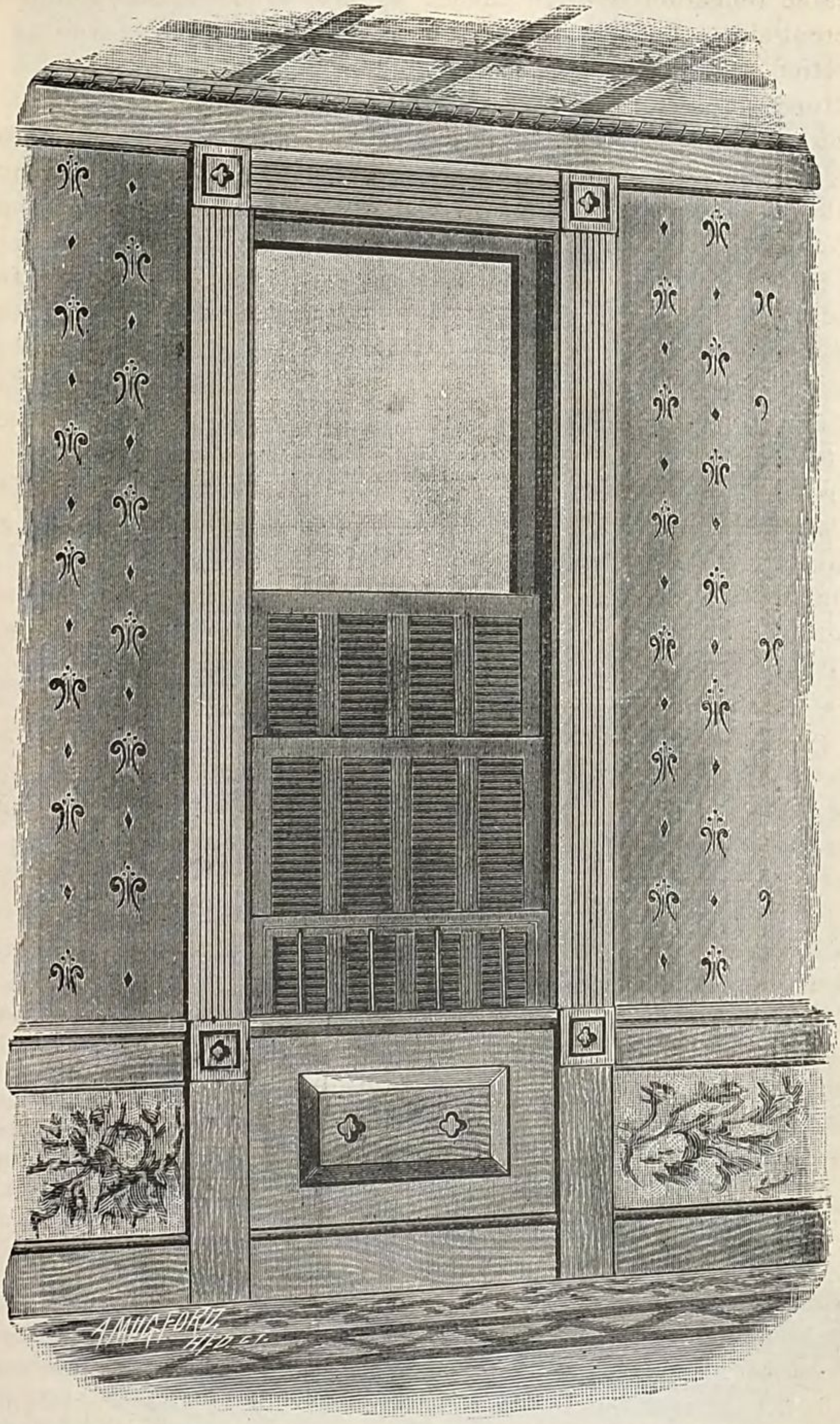


FIG. 21.—The Hill blind, with pocket at bottom of window for a receptacle into which the blinds can be dropped out of sight. When the windows are constructed with slides extending to the floor in front of panel back, the blinds can be dropped, leaving the window entirely exposed. If desired, the outside section can be made with panels, thus forming a neat, inexpensive, and substantial front when blinds are down to the floor,

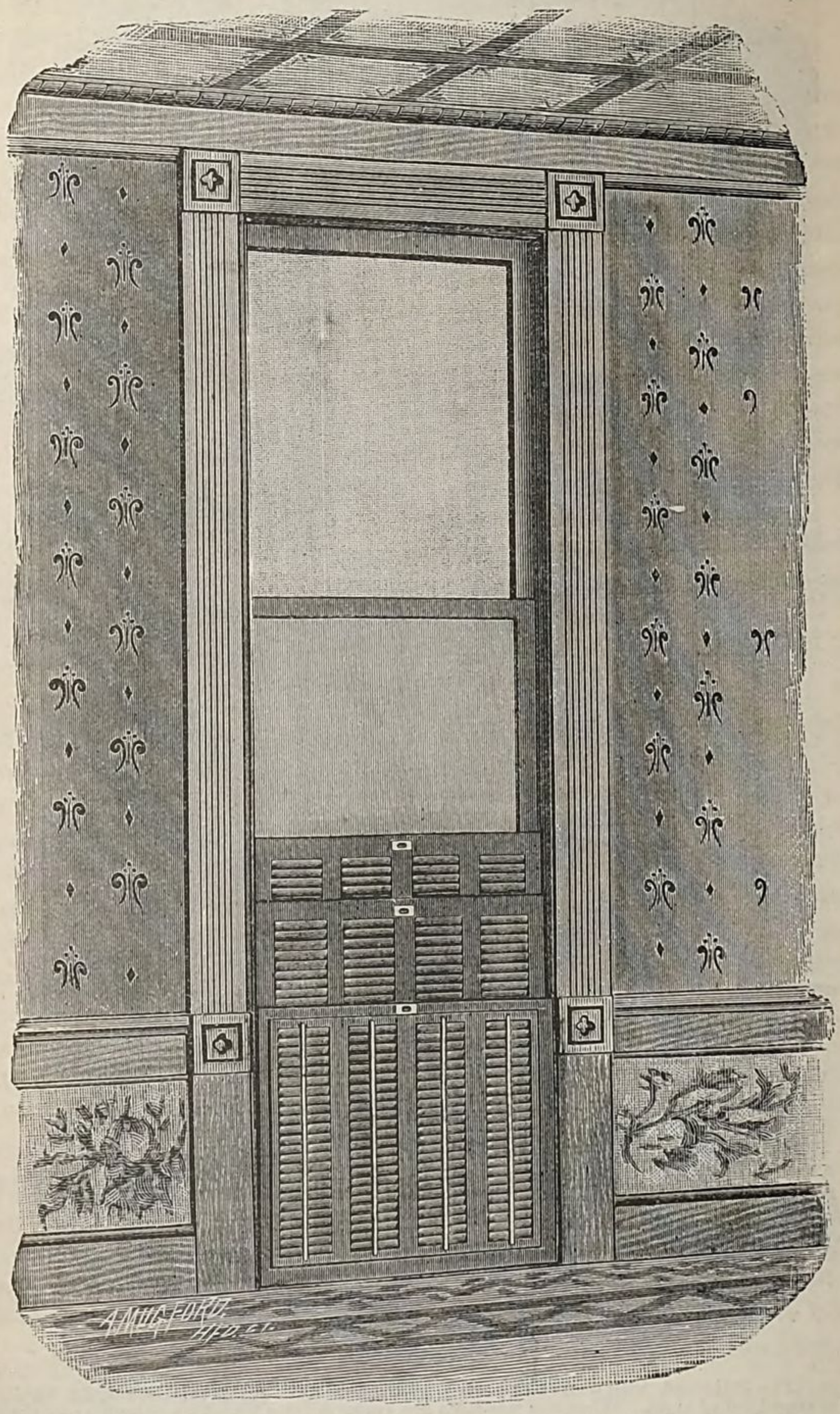


FIG. 22.—The Hill blind in front of panel back at bottom of window, leaving the window entirely exposed.

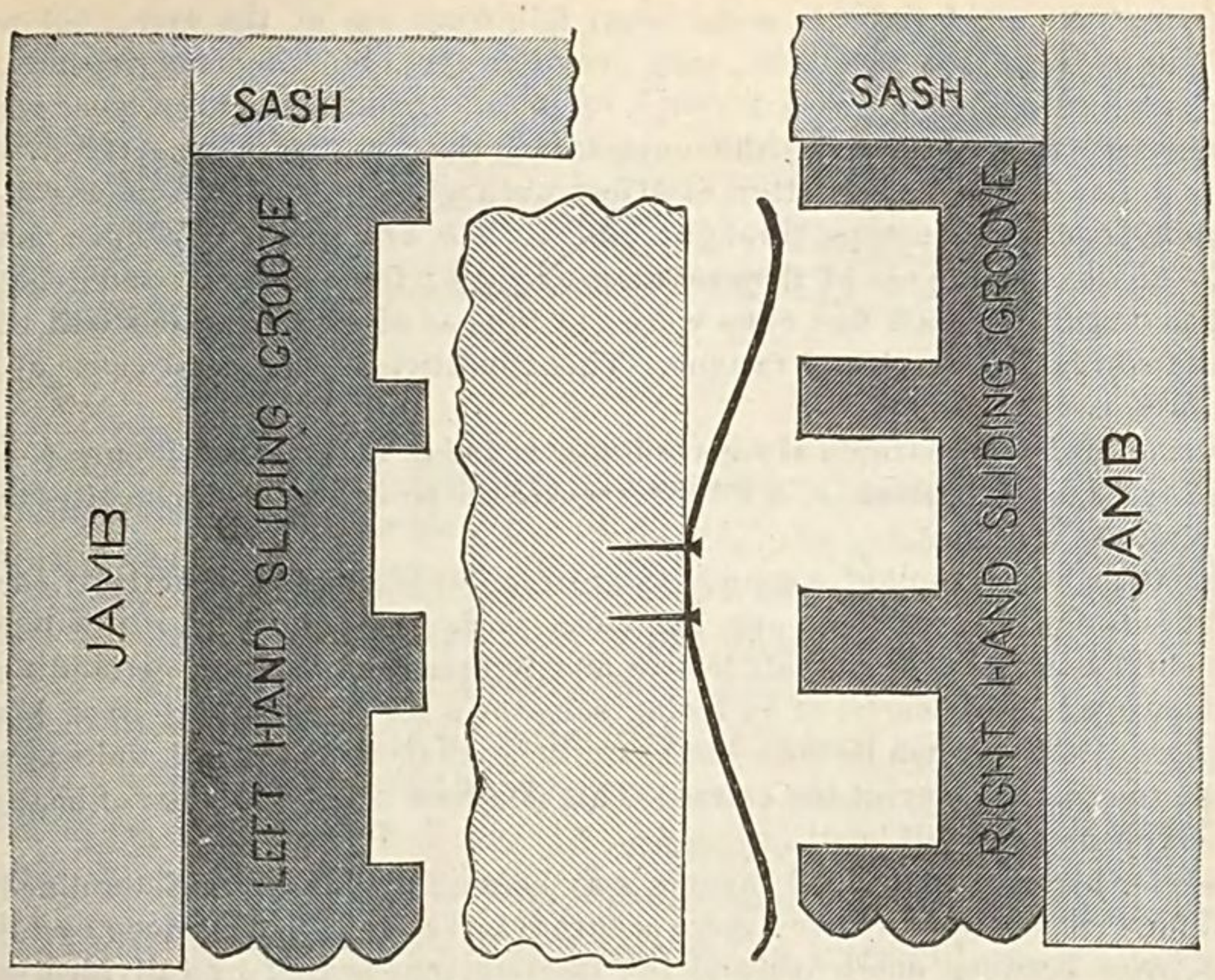


FIG. 23.—This is a full-sized representation of sliding grooves, showing the manner of adjusting them to window frame in place of the sash stop, and a reduced drawing of the friction spring as fastened to right-hand edge of blind.

CARE OF THE EYES.

The following was prepared for the use of the teachers in Worcester, Mass., by Dr. Lewis Dixon, oculist, of Boston. The suggestions are worthy of a wider circulation; and they are therefore inserted here:

Myopia,

Or near sight, is not often congenital but it is usually acquired. It is due to elongation or bulging of the normal spherical eyeball from before, backward; this carries the retina away from the focus. Myopia is chiefly caused by near work, too long continued, and under wrong conditions, assisted often by hereditary tendencies. Near work *causes* and *increases* the myopia but does not usually cause pain or fatigue. Myopia is detected by the inability to read letters of one-third inch square at 20 feet distance, or fine type at 10 inches, through a 10-inch lens. To prevent or check the condition, advise the child to hold head and work up and hold the work well off; to rest frequently for a few minutes, by either closing the eyes or looking at a distance; also, to avoid unnecessary near work both at home and in school as much as possible. If the myopia is greater than one-thirty-sixth, glasses should be worn constantly. If myopia shows a tendency towards rapid increase, especially after illness, advise complete cessation from *all* near work for awhile. In testing for myopia, strive to make it as small in degree as possible, and *doubt* its presence in slight degrees till proved by repeated tests, for the eye often simulates myopia when tired. In hypermetropia the eyeball is congenitally *too short* from before, backward, the retina being in front of the proper focus. This condition is a fixed one, getting neither better nor worse, but it *necessitates* under *every* ordinary condition *more* than the proper amount of work on the part of the muscles of accommodation, and also *necessitates constant* (and therefore very fatiguing) instead of the normal *intermittent* work. Vision is perfectly *good* under all tests; but it is so at the expense of *constant* but *unconscious* effort.

The symptoms are fatigue in some form, following use of the eyes; not necessarily felt *in* the eyes; headache, pain over the eyes, blurring, nervousness, and inability to continue school work through the term. In this condition, near work is too burdensome to be continued without overtaxing the nervous system. It is detected by the inability to read 20-foot letters at 20 feet, even when assisted by a convex 36-inch lens; or by reading fine type through a 10-inch lens at a greater distance than 10 inches. Advise sparing use of the eyes on near work; frequent rests and avoidance of studies requiring much fine close work; or the use of glasses which will enable the eyes to do full work *without* fatigue. This condition is the usual cause of strabismus or crossed eyes.

In testing for hypermetropia always *endeavor to find it*, and suspect its presence till repeated tests show its absence, in all cases where the child has headache, tires easily, or complains of blurring.

Astigmatism is the result of a congenitally irregular (instead of spherical) cornea; all sight is fatiguing to such an eye, but close work particularly so. It is detected by the child's tendency to miscall letters and figures, by squinting or holding the head sideways to see clearly, or by seeing some of a set of radiating lines blacker than others. Nothing can be done but spare the eyes from near work, unless glasses are made to order, to correct the errors. This condition is also the cause of headache, pain, nervousness, and ill health.

Glasses for hypermetropia and myopia may be roughly but safely determined and advised for those unable to have a more accurate test made. This is done by finding the difference between one-tenth and the fraction represented by 1 divided by the *greatest possible* number of inches at which the child can be made to read fine print through the 10 inch lens.

For example, if he reads at 8 inches, and never farther off, we have 1-8—1-10=1-40. The denominator 40 shows the focal power of the glass needed, and the point of reading being *nearer* than the normal (10 inches) he is near sighted, and needs concave 40 glasses.

If 15 inches is the distance that the child can read through the 10-inch lens, then 1-10—1-15=1-30, and he needs a 30-inch glass to correct his error; *convex* because he reads farther off than the normal 10 inches. So if 6 inches is the point, 1-6—1-10=1-15, and concave 15 is the glass needed. If the point is 20 inches, then 1-10—1-20=1-20, and convex 20 is the glass. Remember to make the *concave* glasses always as *weak* as you can and the *convex* glasses as *strong* as you can.

Warn children and parents that in myopia the tendency is towards increase of the trouble, and that care in regulating the amount of near work will do much to check the progress, and the wearing of glasses, if myopia is really present, will *stop* the progress. Advise against branches or courses of study involving much close work, unless pupil is willing to wear correcting glasses.

Warn parents and children that in hypermetropia headaches, nervous symptoms of various kinds, and even ill health may result from this condition, even where no complaint is ever made of eyes or sight, and work and vision may be perfect.

Moderation in close work will usually relieve the condition; the use of proper glasses *for close work* will always relieve and enable the eyes to do full work without fatigue or other trouble.

In astigmatism, warn them that headaches, nervous difficulties, and ill health may be caused entirely by this condition, which must remain permanent unless relieved by the proper optical means.

IV.—THE GROWTH OF CHILDREN AS RELATED TO HEALTH AND ABILITY TO STUDY.

Closely related to the sanitary conditions of schoolhouses, are various other conditions affecting the child while in school; his health, the period of his rapid growth, the season of the year when this growth takes place, and the effect of this rapid growth upon his health and upon his consequent ability to do school work.

Since, under our system of education, children are kept in school, especially in the cities and the larger towns, about three-fourths of the time between the ages of 5 and 15 years, five or six hours a day, the important questions arise whether intellectual culture is not sought at the expense of bodily vigor, and whether the curriculum of studies is so arranged as to secure the best results with the least outlay of the pupils' strength; whether also the hardest study is assigned to that part of the year, and to that part of the course, when children are best able to accomplish it.

If children are taken into school and kept at work in study, so that their vital energies are exhausted at a time when their bodies ought to be developing, and if, consequently, the seeds of disease are being planted at a time when the foundation of future health should be laid, then it is of the greatest importance that the evil should be corrected.

In a new and sparsely settled country the springs are pure, and the question of drainage takes care of itself; the sewage is so small in quantity in comparison with the territory, that it is of little or no importance. In thickly settled communities the case is reversed; and the problem of the disposal of sewage, unimportant under the former conditions, becomes of serious import. There is a similar change of conditions in the problems relating to school life. When the number of months' schooling was small, and the child was occupied in other pursuits a large part of the year, health and growth were but little affected by the school. Since, at present, three-fourths of the child's time, in working hours, for the ten years of his life most important for health, growth, and bodily development, is spent in school, this question of health and growth becomes serious. And evidence is not wanting that our school life is liable to affect the health of children injuriously. Says Prof. A. Key, of Stockholm, in the Popular Science Monthly for Nov., 1890:

> More and more sharply is the question of the influence of the present school system on the growing youth debated in every enlightened country of Europe. More and more distinctly is it declared, especially from the side of the doctors, that the school

imposes too great demands upon the young organism in the critical period of its growth; that it, as well as all our education, seeks too onesidedly to stimulate mental growth, and that the physical development is thereby so neglected that great danger arises, perhaps fatal for the whole life, to the body as well as to the closely related mental health.

And in this country attention has been directed to the subject in many of the larger cities. In Boston, for example, a director of hygiene is employed by the school committee; and physical training is a part of the regular school course. Other towns and cities are following the example. There is no need, however, of any panic on this subject. The race is not likely suddenly to become extinct, as an immediate consequence of the present school system. And yet it behooves us to examine carefully whither the present system tends, and to apply the remedy in time if a remedy is needed. And the first step is to ascertain the facts. To this end Professor Key, just quoted, has made investigation of 15,000 boys and 3,000 girls of the schools of Denmark, Sweden, Belgium, Italy, and perhaps of other countries, as one of the Royal Swedish commission for this purpose; he has published the results; and the article quoted above gives certain conclusions. Among the most striking of these deductions as applicable to this country are these—

I. That boys pass through three distinct periods of growth; a moderate increase in the seventh and eighth years; a weaker growth from their ninth to their thirteenth years, and a much more rapid increase in height and weight from their fourteenth to their sixteenth years. * * * The development of girls also presents distinct periods, but the changes occur a few years earlier than in boys.

II. That children exhibit a relatively light growth from the end of November to the end of March. This period, which includes all the winter months, is followed by a second, from the end of March till July or August, during which the children grow rapidly in height, but their increase in weight is reduced to the minimum. After this follows a third period continuing to the end of November, in which the increase in height is very small and the gain in weight very large.

III. That of fifteen thousand boys in middle-schools, more than one-third are ill or are afflicted with chronic maladies. Shortsightedness, which is demonstrably for the most part induced by the overtaxing of the eyes in school work, and well merits the name of school-sickness, rises rapidly in height of prevalence from class to class. Thirteen and a half per cent. of the boys suffer from habitual headache, and nearly thirteen per cent. are pallid; and other diseases arise in the lower classes and then decline, to rise again in the upper classes.

IV. That the remarkable rise of the sickness-curve [a line drawn through a table of squares whose vertical lines represent the age and whose horizontal lines show the per cent. to represent the facts graphically] in the preparatory schools and the lower classes of the middle schools occurs exactly during the period from seven or eight years to thirteen years, the very one that has been shown to be one of weaker growth in boys. But as soon as the stronger growth sets in, and especially during the last years of that period, when the gain in weight is most rapid, the curve sinks from class to class, from year to year. . . . . When the yearly increase in weight and height begins to diminish rapidly, the sickness curve again rises very fast.

These investigations relate also to the time daily demanded by school for work and to the hours devoted to sleep; and

V. It was found that the amount of illness of those who worked longer than the average was 5.3 per cent. higher than that of those who worked less. * * * * The result was still more significant in the two lowest classes. The liability to illness there, in connection with the longer hours of work, was from 8.6 to 8.7 per cent. higher.

If the above deductions are correct, and if they are applicable to this country, then we may conclude (1) that boys can do most school work daily from March to November and least from November to March, and (2) that they should not be urged very rapidly from the years of 9 to 13, and that they can safely work hardest from 14 to 16 inclusive.

The age when girls can do their best work varies from that of the boys; but Professor Key's investigations relating to girls are less applicable to this country than those about boys; first, because they relate to comparatively few, and second, because the American school for girls is quite unlike the European school. It is more important, however, that school work should be properly adjusted to the ability of girls than that it should be adapted to the boys, because girls, as a rule, are more faithful to school duties than boys are, and they are not so strong.

In this country investigations similar to those of Professor Key, though less exhaustive, were made by Prof. H. P. Bowditch, M. D., of the Harvard Medical School, in 1875. They were authorized by the school committee of Boston, and they were made upon 13,691 boys and 10,904 girls—a total of 24,595 pupils. They relate to the height and weight only of children of American and of foreign parentage of ages 5 to 18 inclusive. These observations were made for only one year, and they belong to a single locality; and, consequently, any deductions made from them are liable to more or less error. Their value would be greatly increased if they could be continued and if they could be extended and compared with similar statistics from other places.

At Wellesley College the health officer or resident physician, it is understood, has secured valuable data relating to the effect of study in that institution upon the health of the young ladies. The late president of that institution, Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, is reported to have announced, as the result of her observations of the students through a series of years, that the health of students is not injured by study, and that their health improves under it. This is due no doubt to favorable conditions—a gymnasium, a resident physician, a well-considered curriculum, health of diet and regular hours. If satisfactory results have been attained in that institution they are possible elsewhere. It is probable, indeed, that equally good results have been secured in many other places with which I do not happen to be acquainted.

MEASUREMENTS OF WORCESTER SCHOOL CHILDREN.

In the line of Professor Key's investigations, examinations of some 2,000 or 2,500 children in the public schools of Worcester, Mass., were made during the spring of 1891 by Dr. Franz Boas, of Clark University. The measurements were authorized by the school committee of this city,

as follows: Name; age; birthplace; nationality of father; of mother; occupation of father; residence; number of brothers; of sisters; [first, second, &c.] born child; sight; hearing; memory; stature or height [shoes off]; fingerreach; height sitting; length of head; width of head; height of face; width of face; weight; color of hair; of eyes.

The pupils were in the grammar and primary schools, of both sexes, and of ages from 5 to 15 or 16 years. Each child removed his shoes while one of the examiners noted the name, the age, residence, birthplace, nationality, and occupation of parents, number of brothers and sisters, &c.; a second pupil then took his place and he passed to the second examiner who took, and recorded, his height, sitting and standing, his fingerreach (the distance between the ends of his middle fingers with arms extended horizontally), the dimensions of the head, the weight, &c.; he then passed to a third examiner who tested his eyesight (by asking him to read letters of different sizes, at a certain distance), and noted the color of the eyes and the hair. The test of hearing was easily made by noting at what distance the pupil could readily hear the ticking of a watch. As soon as he returned to the schoolroom another pupil took his place. In this way the pupils left the room and returned one at a time without much interruption of school exercises; and each pupil was absent from the room from five to seven minutes only.

The principal labor of such an examination consists in tabulating the results from the printed blanks on which they are written, and averaging them. If these examinations can be continued for a series of years, so that the measurements of the same pupil year after year can be compared, then the period of greatest growth can be more accurately determined; and the larger the number of pupils the more accurately will the averages determine this period. For the greatest usefulness, also, data are required concerning the health of children when in school, in order to determine whether there is more sickness among them during the period of slow growth than there is among European children; and for obtaining such data no means has yet been provided.

The memory test is very simple and quite interesting. It was conducted by the teacher, with the whole class. All the pupils sat at their desks with paper and pencil before them; and the teacher, having first secured their attention, read a line of six figures; at a signal, a moment after, each child took his pencil and wrote the line; a second line of figures, and then a third was read by the teacher and written by the pupil in the same manner. After this, three lines of seven figures each were written by the pupils in the same way; and then, three lines of eight figures each—of course the figures being varied each time. The teacher next read the figures in order, and the pupils (perhaps after exchanging papers) marked all that were wrong. If this test is adapted to the capacity of the pupils, with not too many figures at a time for the younger children, it is very curious to note how much smaller will be the per cent. of errors in the morning, when the children are fresh, than near the close of the session, when they are weary. It is a test of

fatigue as well of memory and attention. This may throw light upon the order in which studies should follow each other during the day.

It is too early for the results of the measurements of children in this city to be announced, but one or two results are already known.

Of the children examined about 10 per cent. have defective eyesight. In some cases, probably a large number, neither the pupil nor his parents were aware of the defect; and when undiscovered not only is the difficulty liable to increase, but the pupil may appear stupid, lose courage, and fail to improve, when the real difficulty is that he can not see, while supposing that he sees as well as anybody. There are many well-authenticated instances of this kind. The same is true of defective hearing. To relieve such unfortunate pupils is worthy of great effort by a teacher, and any investigation which brings such relief in any considerable number of instances, is well repaid.

A second result thus far announced relates to the growth of the face, and it is said to be of considerable interest. [See Science, Vol. XVIII, No. 439.]

> There seem to be three distinct periods [of this growth in the female face], the first ending about the seventh year, and the third beginning about the fifteenth year. A striking peculiarity is the seemingly abrupt transition from the types of one period to those of the succeeding. The sudden disappearance of the lower widths of the face, and the equally sudden appearance of the types of the succeeding period, *e. g.*, the sudden shooting up of the widths to almost adult dimensions at about the age of eight or nine, offset by the equally sudden disappearance of the distinctively childish characteristics at the age of eleven.

The significance of this observation may appear when it is remembered that the development of the face is known to correspond intimately with that of the brain.

How much value educationally there may turn out to be in these particular investigations I do not pretend to know. They are detailed here, imperfectly to be sure, in order to show that something has been done and is being done in the important direction of determining the effect of physical growth upon ability to do school work, and the effect of school life upon the health of children, and in order if possible, also to stimulate similar investigations among those who may read this circular.

CONCLUSION.

In the following appendices from different sources, statements may appear more or less at variance with another and with those in the body of this circular. It is proper, therefore, in conclusion for me to indicate what on the whole appears to me best. This I will do in the form of a general summary:

I.

(1) The basement of a schoolhouse should be at least from one-half to three-fifths of its height above ground, in order that it may be well lighted and airy.

(2) The stairs leading into the building should be under cover in all cases, to be free from ice and snow in winter.

(3) The pavement in all basements and water-closets should be of Portland cement. (See Mr. Philbrick's report, page 45.)

(4) In all houses of more than one story there should be at least two flights of stairs, at a distance from each other—the one for boys and the other for girls; and both flights should be accessible from every room in the house to avoid all possible danger from fire. In cities the stair cases should be fireproof.

II.

(5) The window-sills should be 4 feet high, and the windows should extend to the ceiling—no matter what the architect says.

(6) The windows should be massed at the left of the pupils, and near the back corner; one or two at the back near the left corner, and the rest along the side.

(7) The schoolroom should be narrow from left to right, the inner seat being distant from the windows not more than one-and-a-half times the height of the top of the window; the broad aisle at the back of the room.

(8) Light curtains to roll from the top should be placed in all windows exposed to the direct rays of the sun, and opaque shades to roll from the bottom, or best of all the sliding blinds. (See pp. 53–55.)

(9) The teacher's platform need not face the light, or if it does the teacher need not always sit facing the glare of a window. The light should accommodate the pupils; the teacher can vary his position by facing his desk towards the right of the pupils and sitting in the front

corner at their left. There is no law to compel a teacher to sit square in front of pupils and in the middle of the front side of the room, but there should be a regulation compelling the accommodation of the light to the pupils' eyes, since they are not at liberty to change their position at will as the teacher is.

(10) The south light is better for a schoolroom than the east light and the west light, which admit the slanting rays of the sun, or than the north light which does not admit the sun's rays at all. But for a drawing class the north light is best because the shadows are uniform at all hours of the day.

III.

(11) Air should be admitted to the schoolroom 8 feet above the floor, and exhausted at a height not more than 1 foot above the floor.

(12) Fresh air should never be admitted to a school-room through underground ducts.

(13) Air for admission to a schoolroom should never be heated above 100° F.; and the quantity should never be less than 20 cubic feet per pupil per minute.

(14) If a fan is used for ventilation, the "plenum system" should be used, by which the fan forces the air inward, and not the exhaust, by which the air is sucked out of the room; though in large buildings the two may be combined without injurious effects.

(15) For comfort and economy, double windows should be placed in all schoolhouses in winter in cold climates.

PLATES.

710—No. 3——5

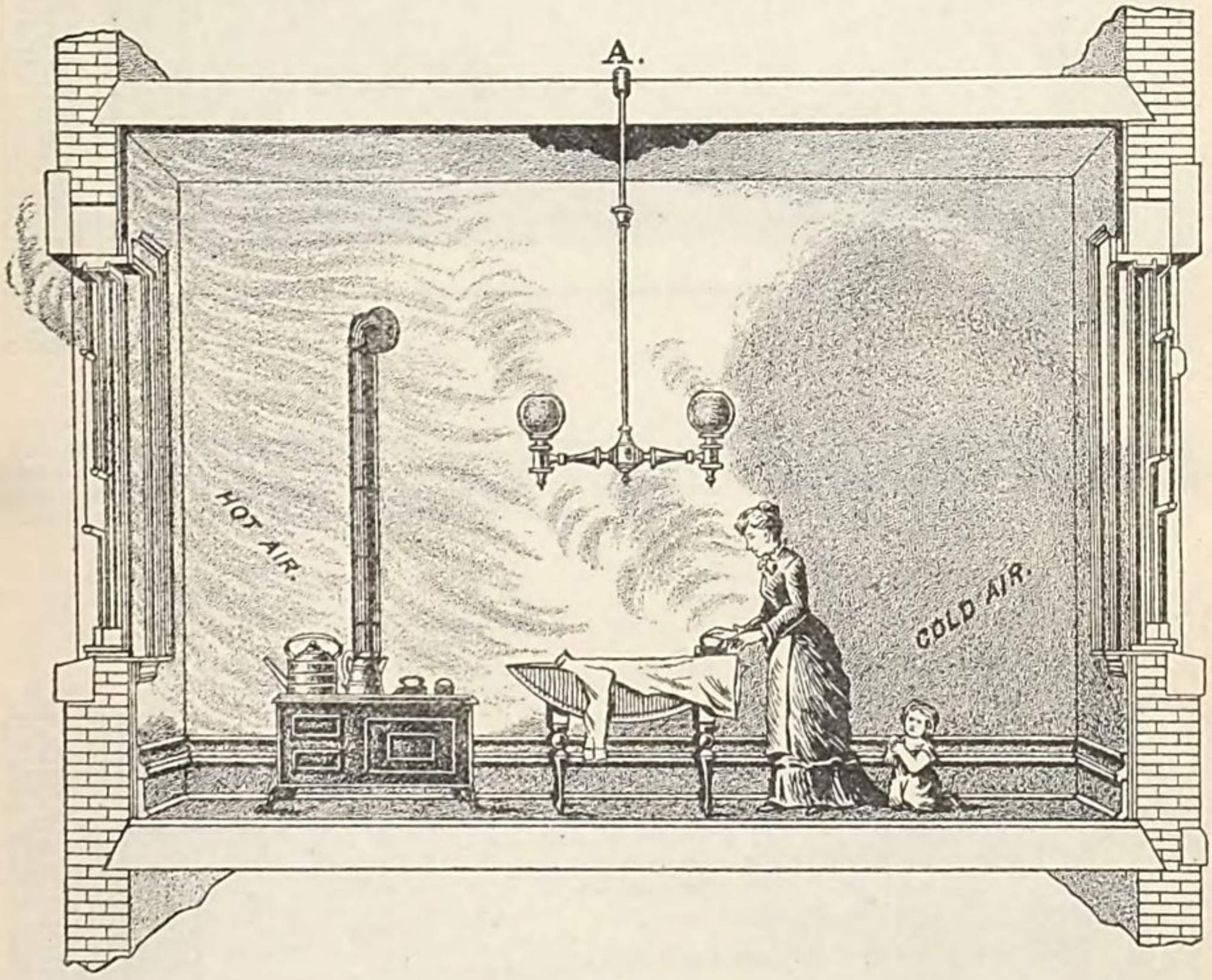


FIG. 24.—Stove heating. The lady is too warm, and has lowered the window from the top to remedy the difficulty. Children often suffer by being in the stratum of cold air near the floor, while the heads of their mothers, or nurses, or teachers, are in a higher and hotter stratum. This is the condition of school rooms heated by stoves or steam coils.

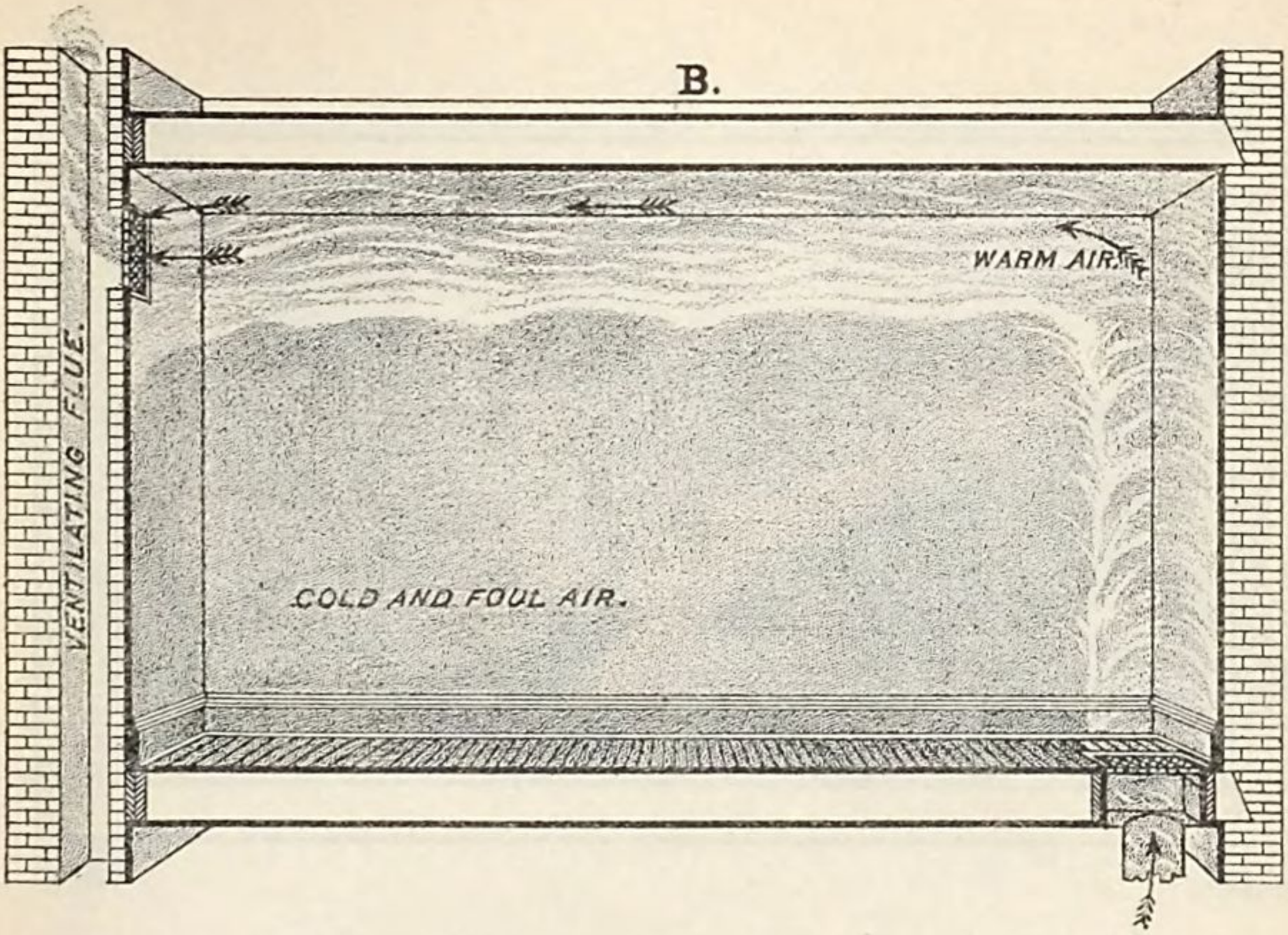


FIG. 25.—The general remedy very bad. Register closed to keep warm, and no other means provided for the escape of air, the room soon becomes pressed full of hot air, producing much headache, discomfort, and disease, and furnace heating is condemned. This is the present condition of most rooms in winter, where hot-air furnaces are used.

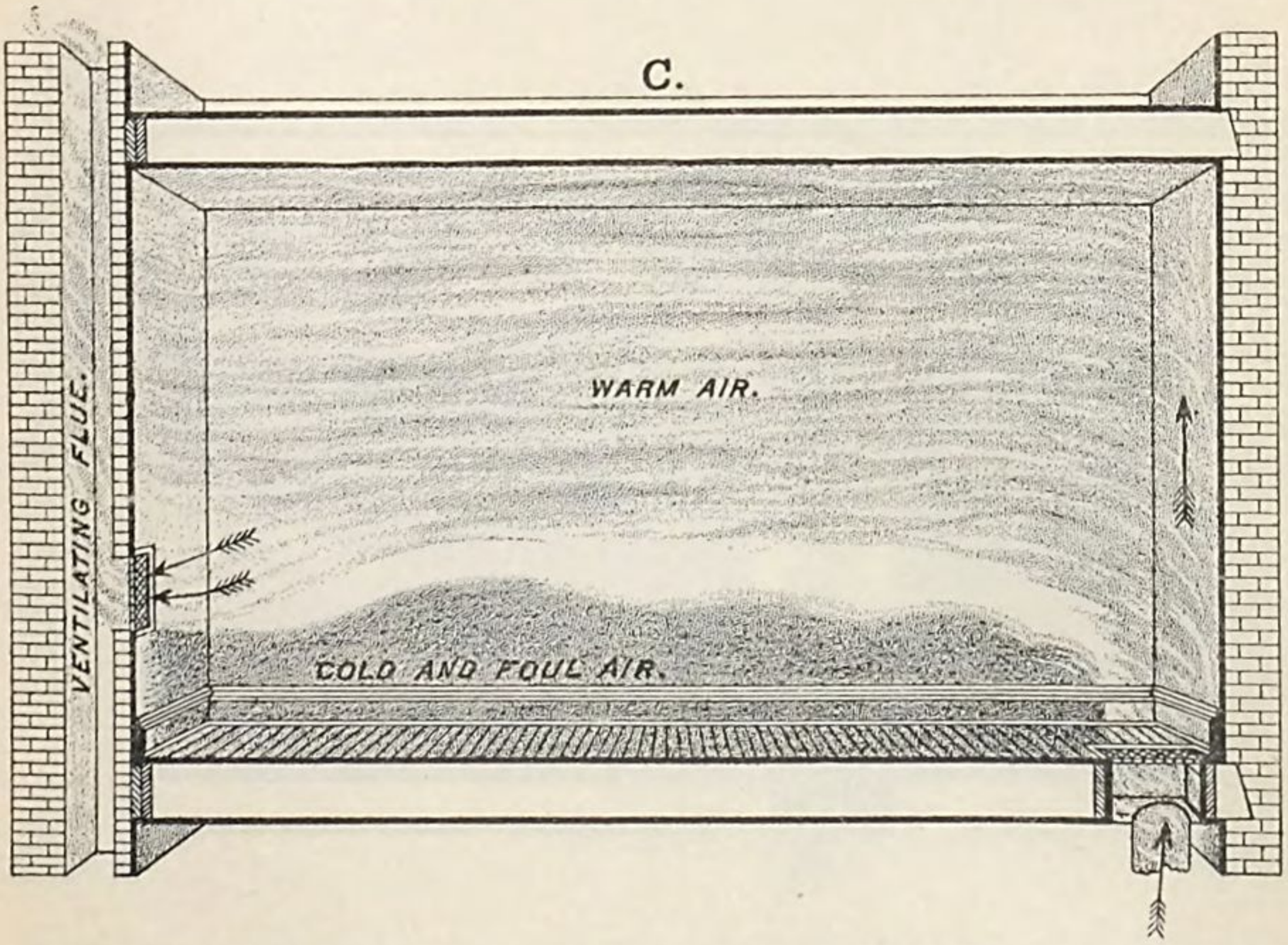


FIG. 26.—Partial improvement. This is better ; the register is open and relieves the room of cold and bad air down to that point, but still leaves a stratum of cold, foul air at the floor, causing the frequent complaint of cold feet and hot heads.

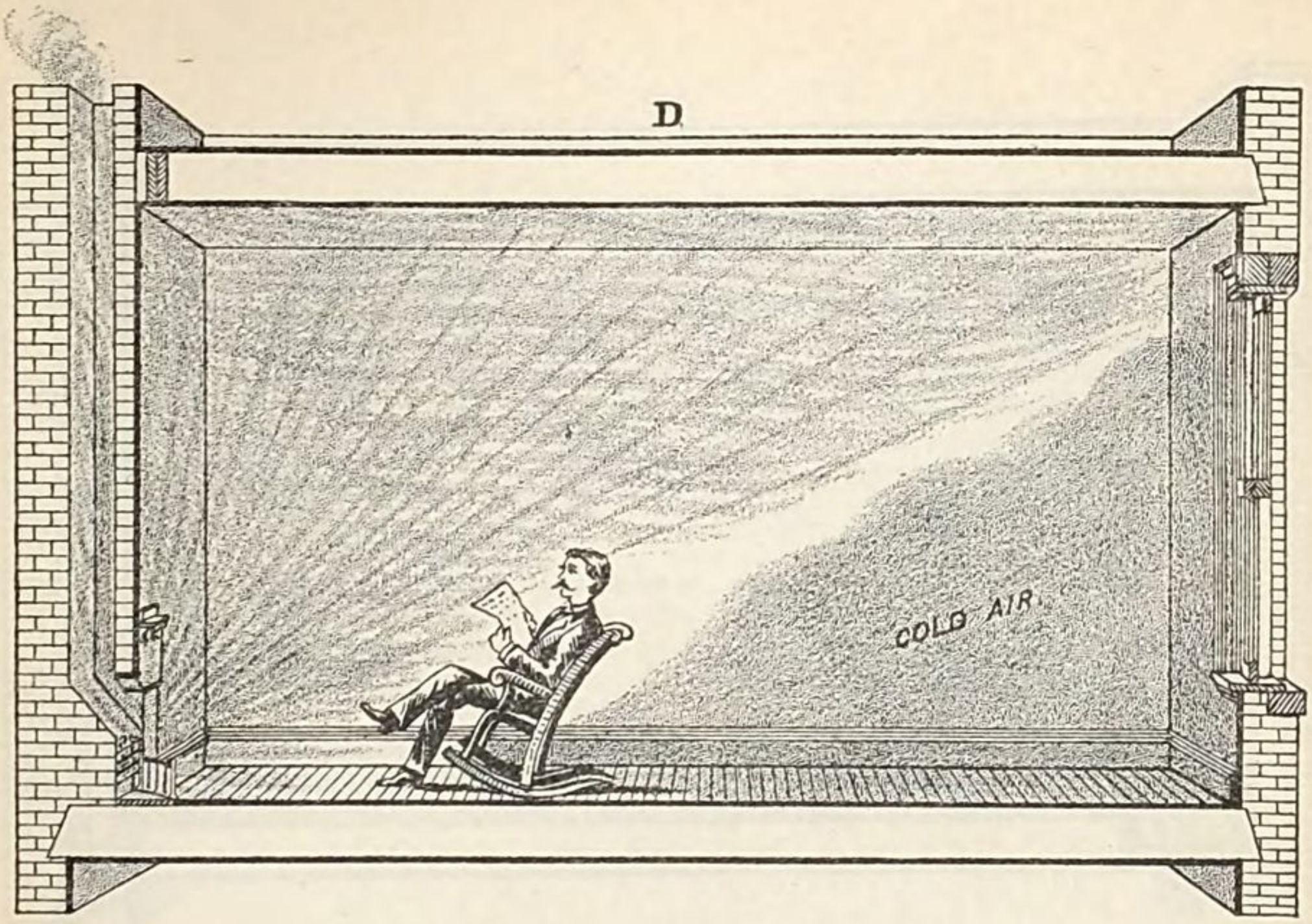


FIG. 27.—Warming by an open fire. Direct radiation (exclusively). Feet cold and head too hot.

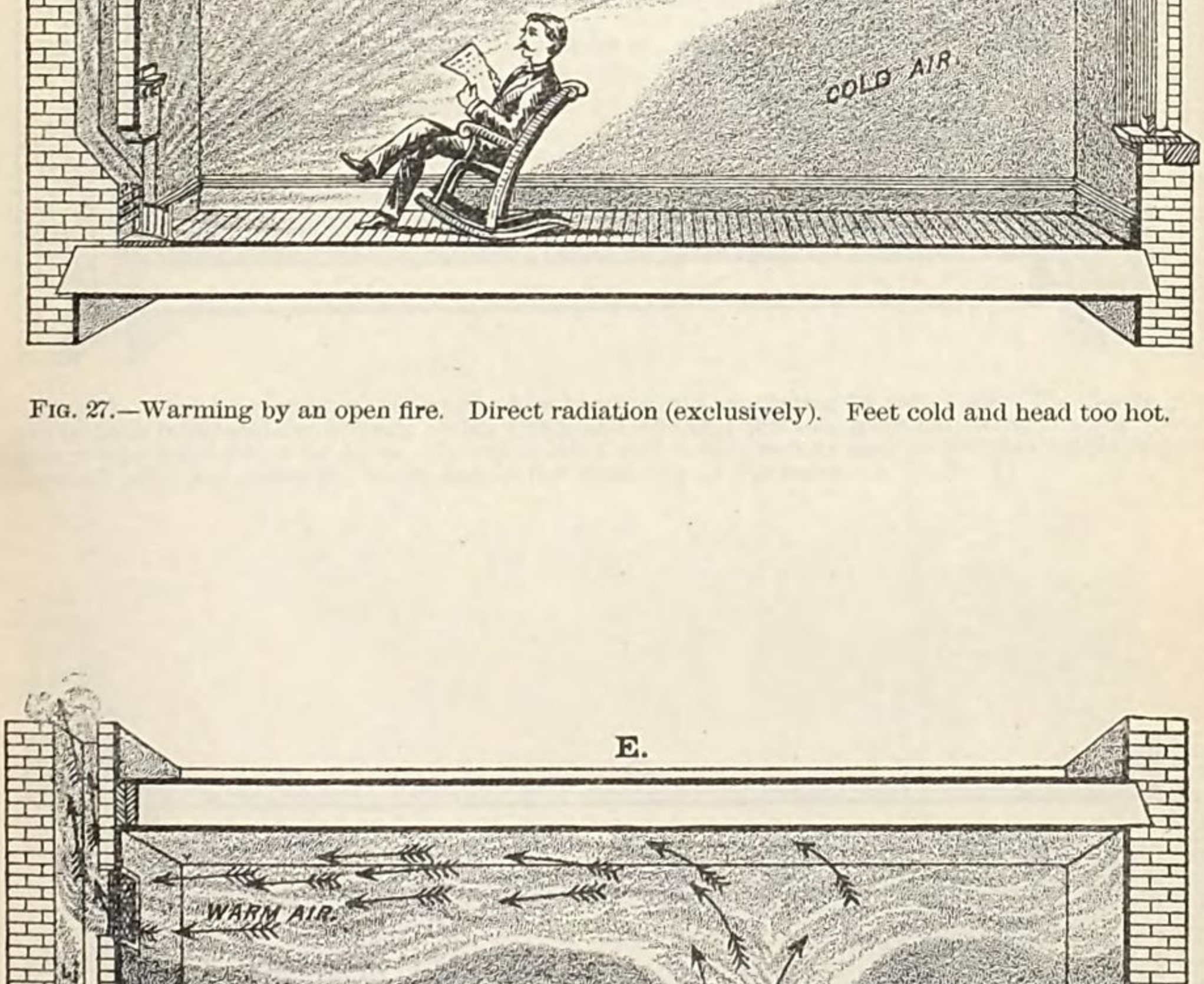


FIG. 28.—The popular mistake. Owing to the common mistaken belief that the breath rises, openings are generally made at the top of the room, but as they let all the warm air out and leave the occupied portions cold and foul, they are always closed in winter, and consequently such ventilation (?) has well earned the reputation of humbug.

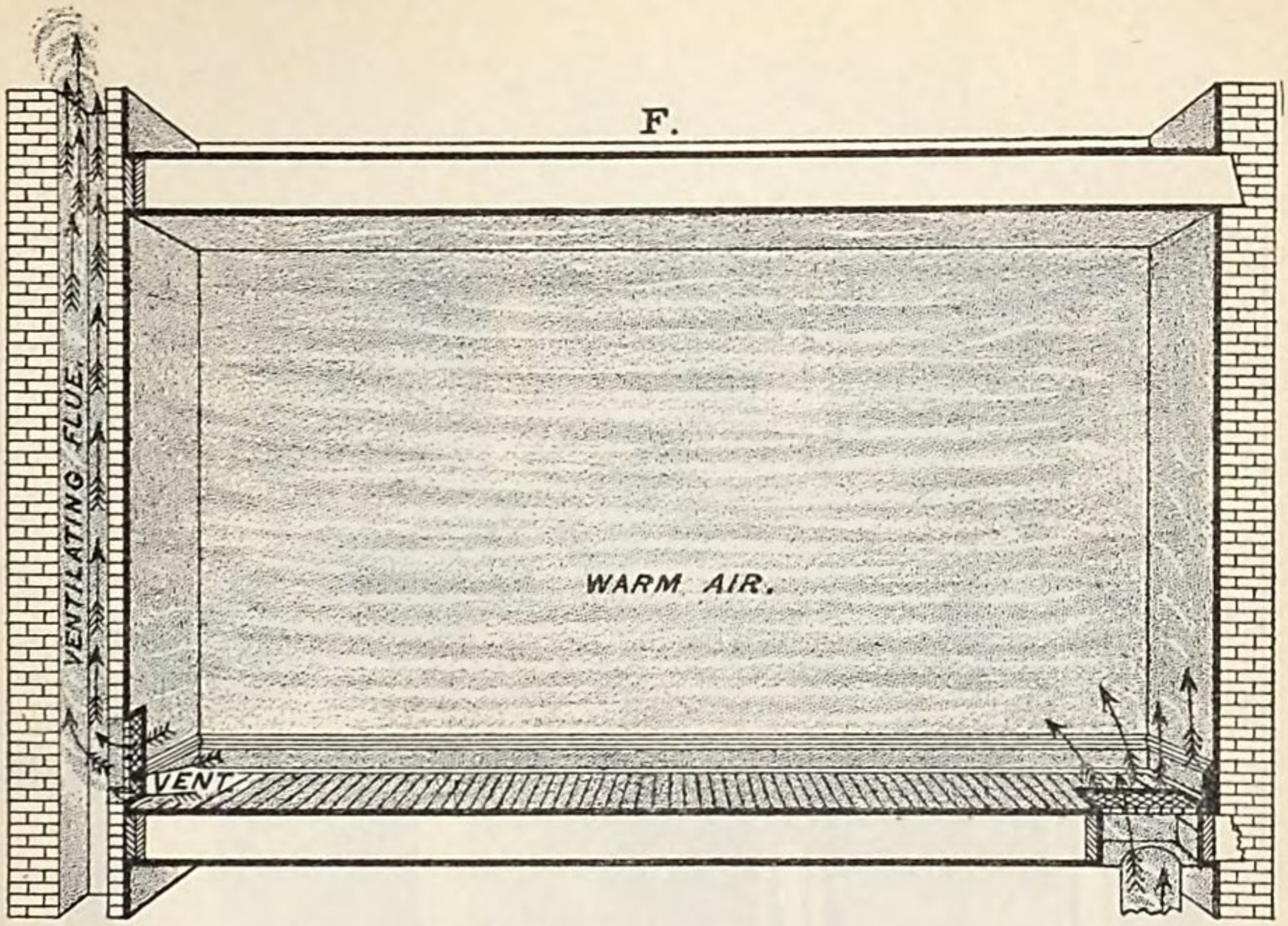


FIG. 29.—Direct ventilation. Correct when heating and ventilating by warm air. The above plan can be built into buildings already constructed, and successfully too, provided there is some one in charge who knows how to do it. [In my opinion still better results may be secured by placing the fresh-air inlet just above the vault, and on the same side of the room.—A. P. M—.]

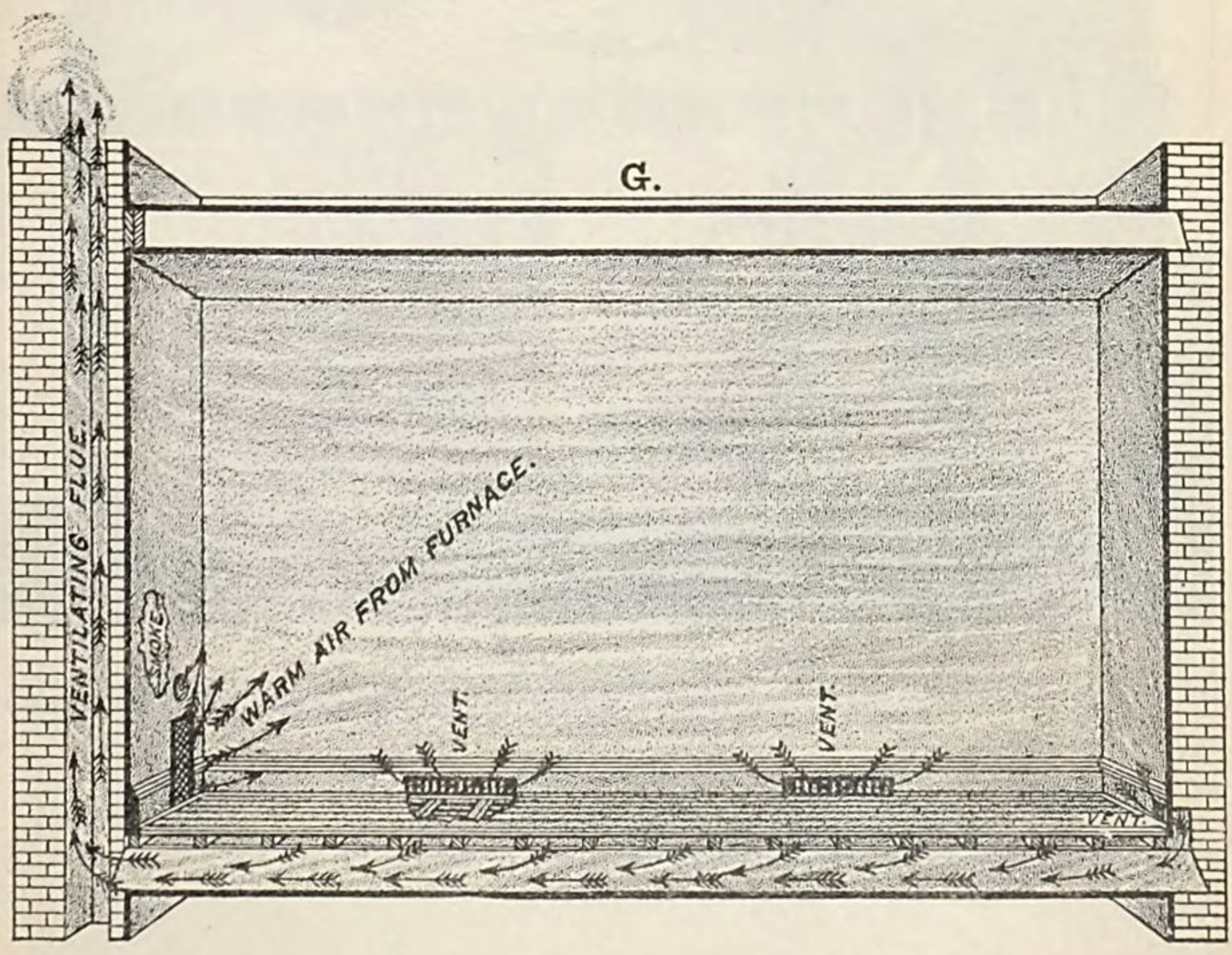


FIG. 30.—Ruttan's correct system of warming and ventilating. By this plan the floors are warmed, and only one ventilating chimney is necessary.

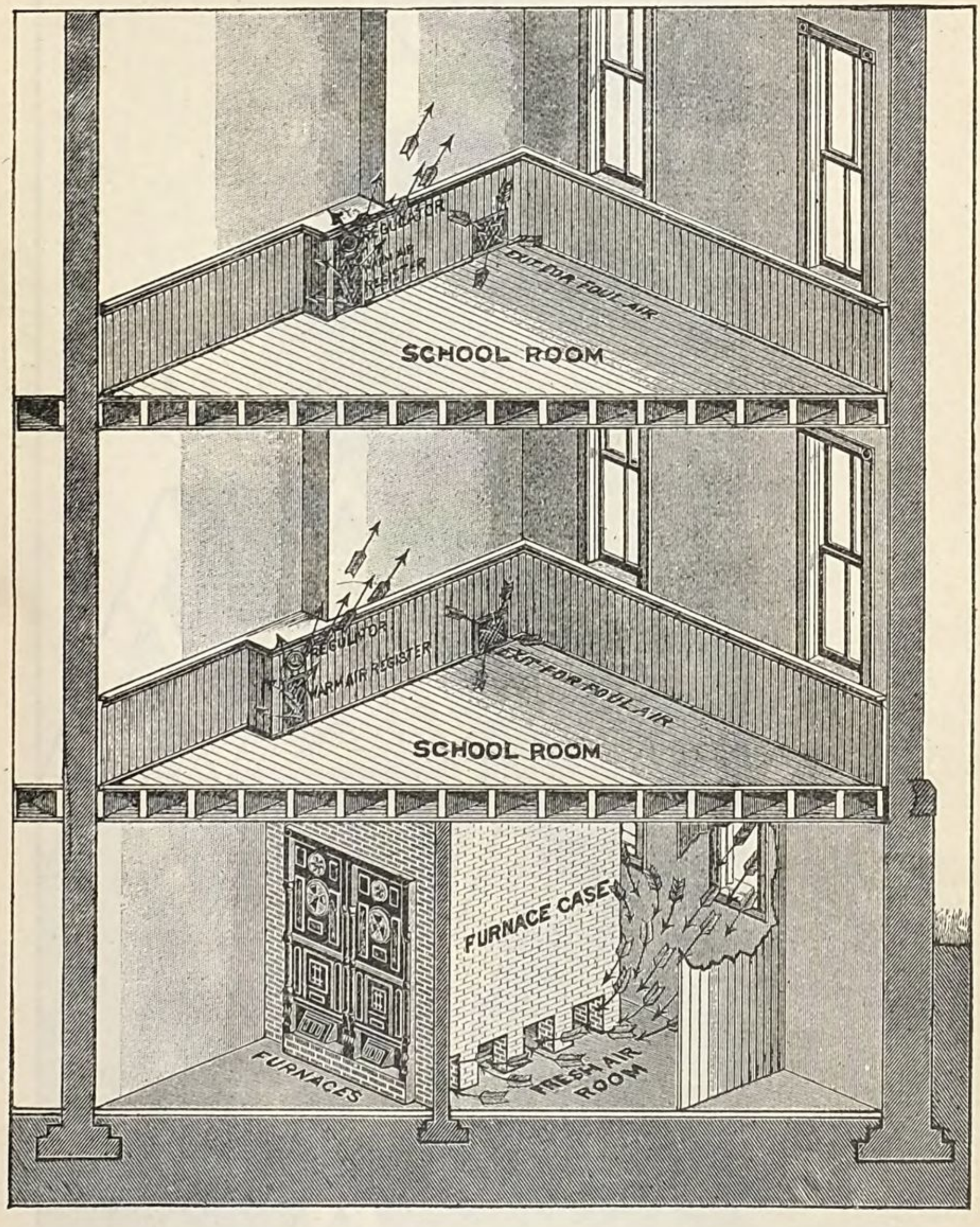


FIG. 31.—Perspective view. Showing air-warmers, cold-air room, and first and second story registers, which should be carried eight feet above the floor on each story.

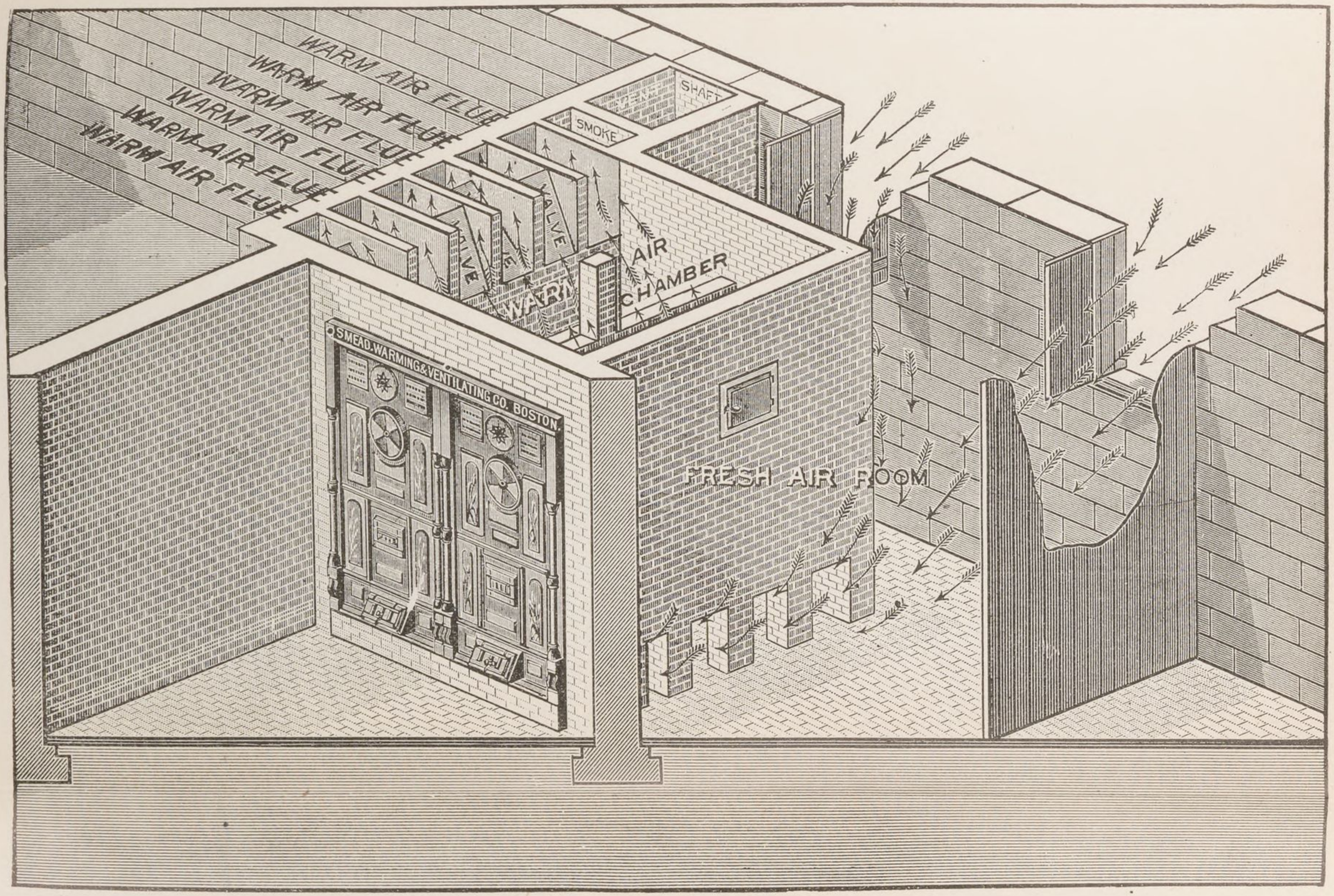


FIG. 31½.—Perspective view of Youngstown, Ohio, plan. Showing arrangement of flues, valves, and air-warmers.

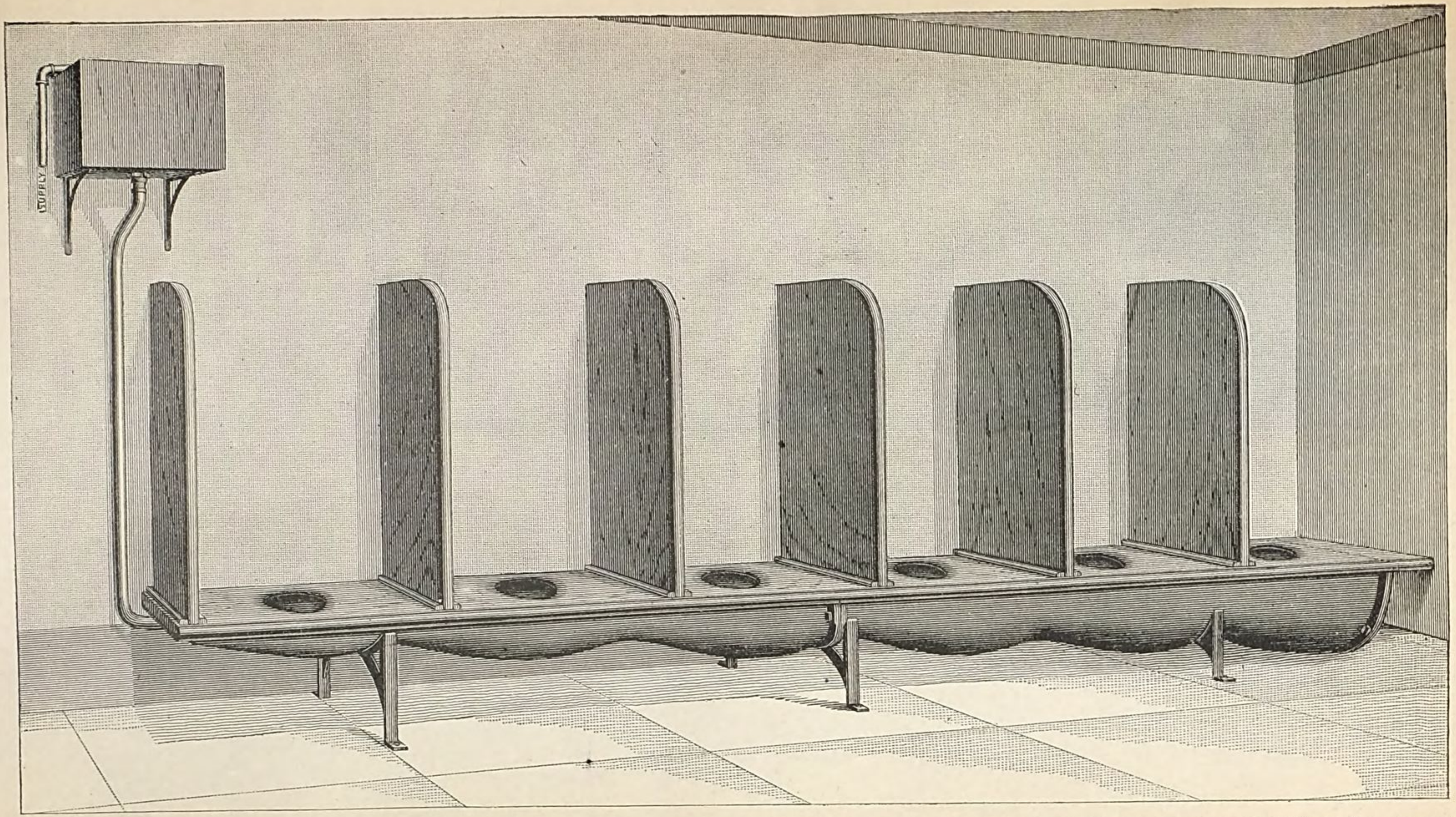


FIG. 32.—A six-section apparatus of the "Parsons" trough water-closets, fitted up with automatic tank. If not desired, the partitions may be dispensed with, as shown in next figure, but each section should be roomed off separately in the same manner as a row of single closets (see Fig. 35).

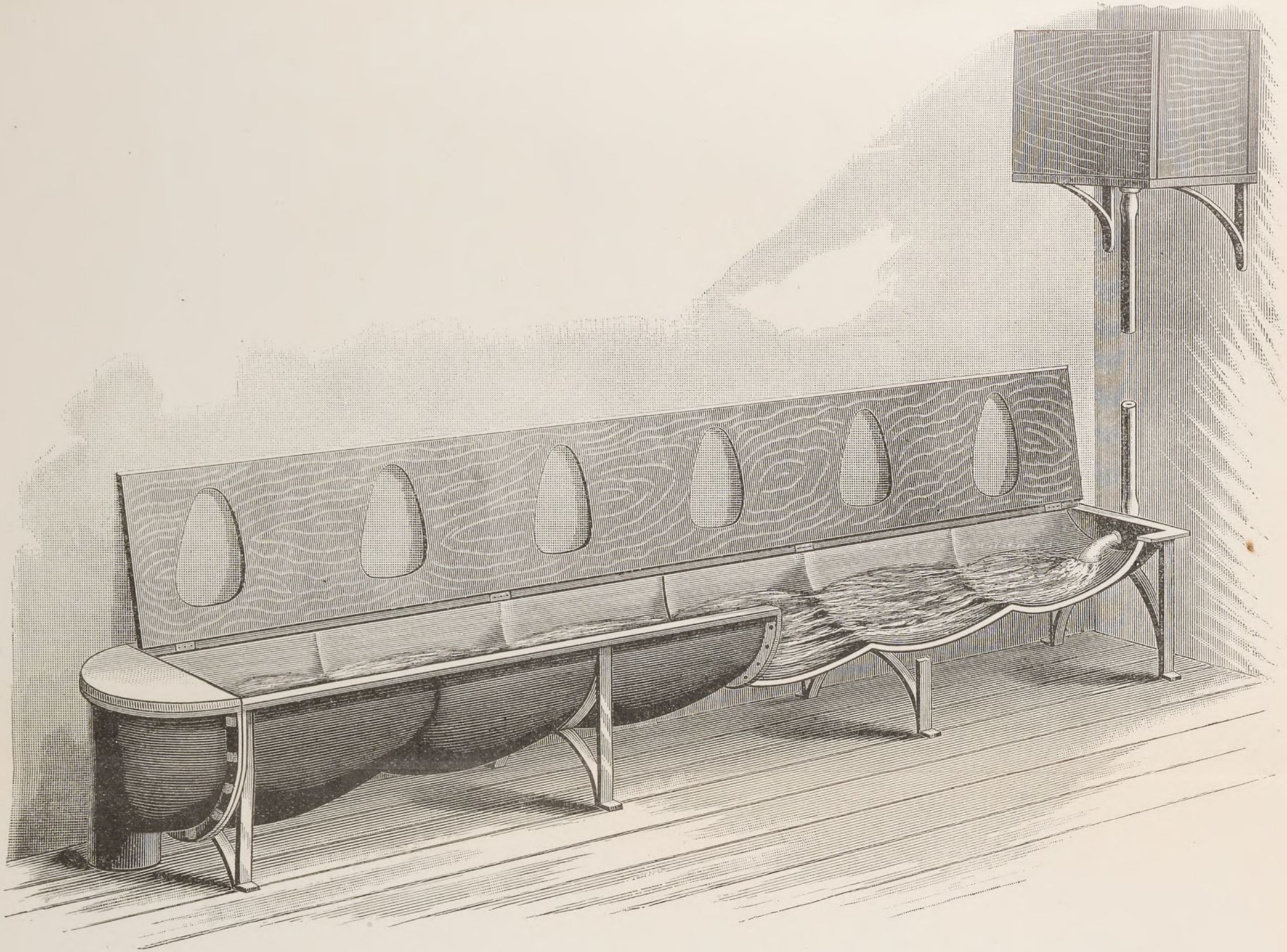


FIG. 33.—View of a six-section apparatus of the "Parsons" water-closet system showing the water in motion. The trough is made to be used either right or left. The floor is of cement. This water-closet comprises a system of two, three, four, five, or six washout water-closets combined in one apparatus, operated by one tank, and with a single outlet. It is automatic in operation and is arranged to discharge its contents at intervals. The arrangement of each basin in the trough at a slightly lower level, with its weir or dam toward the outlet, is at once novel and ingenious, giving an equal flush to each basin with a minimum quantity of water (which is a great desideratum in many localities), in fact, a six-person "Parsons" trough may be flushed out completely with scarcely more water than a single washout closet requires. The flush tank may be easily regulated to empty its contents with certainty at any given period; the quantity of water, also, may be controlled as desired.

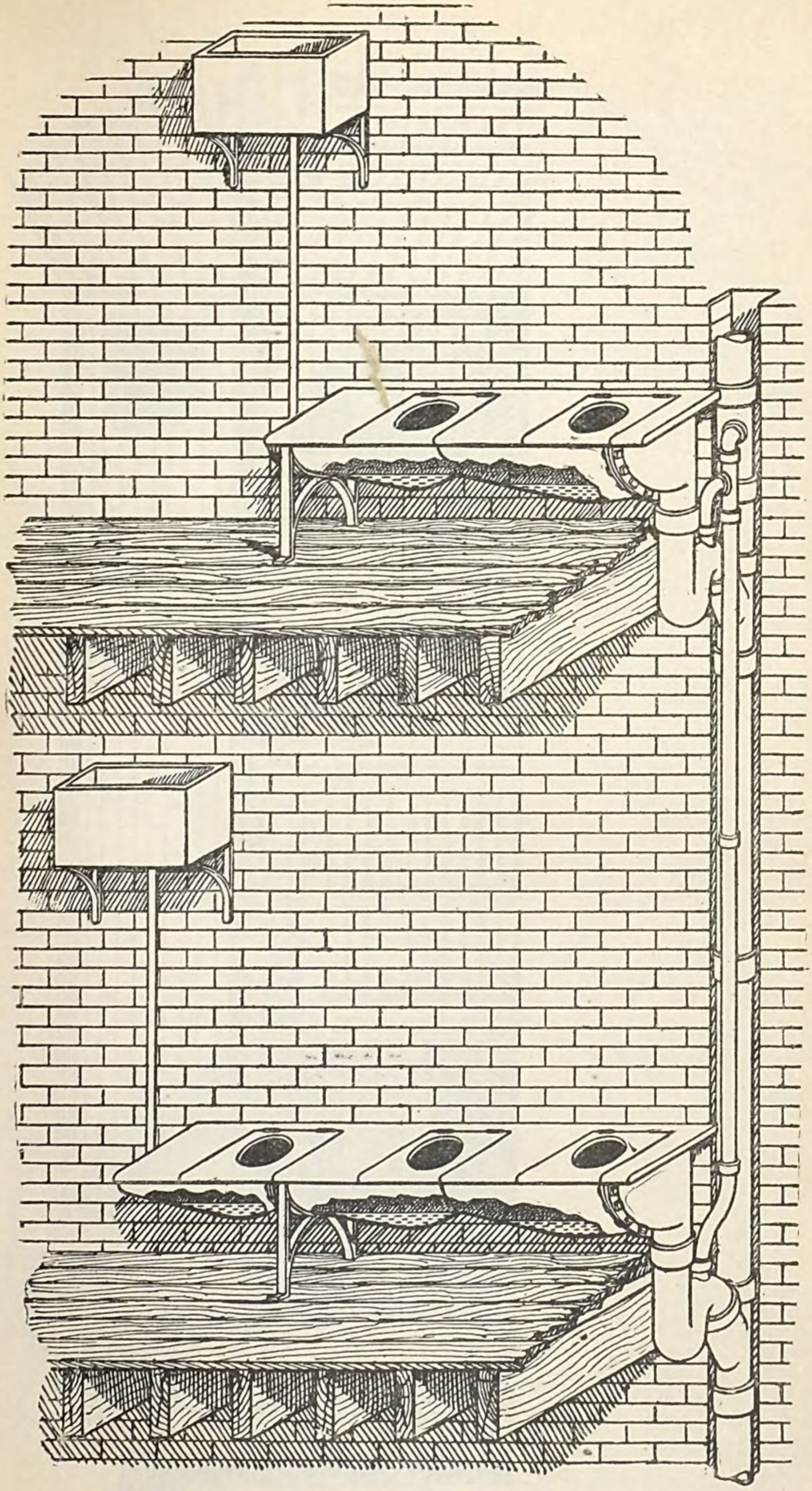


FIG. 34.—View showing the adaptation of the "Parsons" trough system in two or three person closets, for mills, factories, stores, tenements, etc., where it is desired to have them located on different floors. If preferred, the trough can be turned around, placing the outlet in the opposite direction. The supply to the tanks can be so arranged that the water can be turned on or off the whole system by a valve located on the lower floor. In this plate the front of the trough is cut away, showing the water level in each basin. Care should be taken that the seats are placed directly over the centers of the basins.

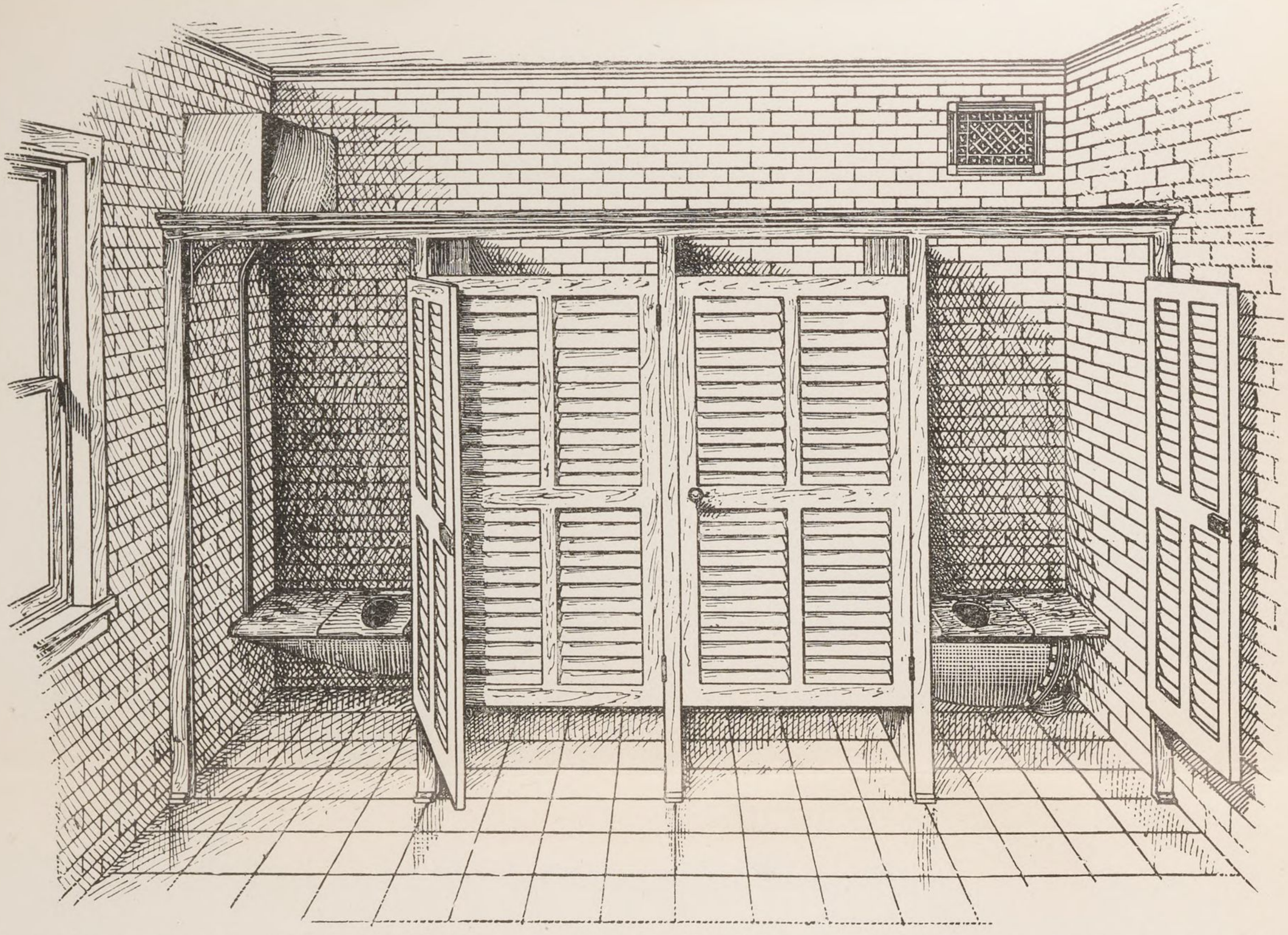


FIG. 35.—View showing a four-section apparatus of the "Parsons" water-closet system, fitted up with partitions, etc. A suggestion for the better class of work for which these water-closets are adapted. [This is the only proper form for schoolhouse closets, though common doors may be used instead of blinds.—A. P. M—.]

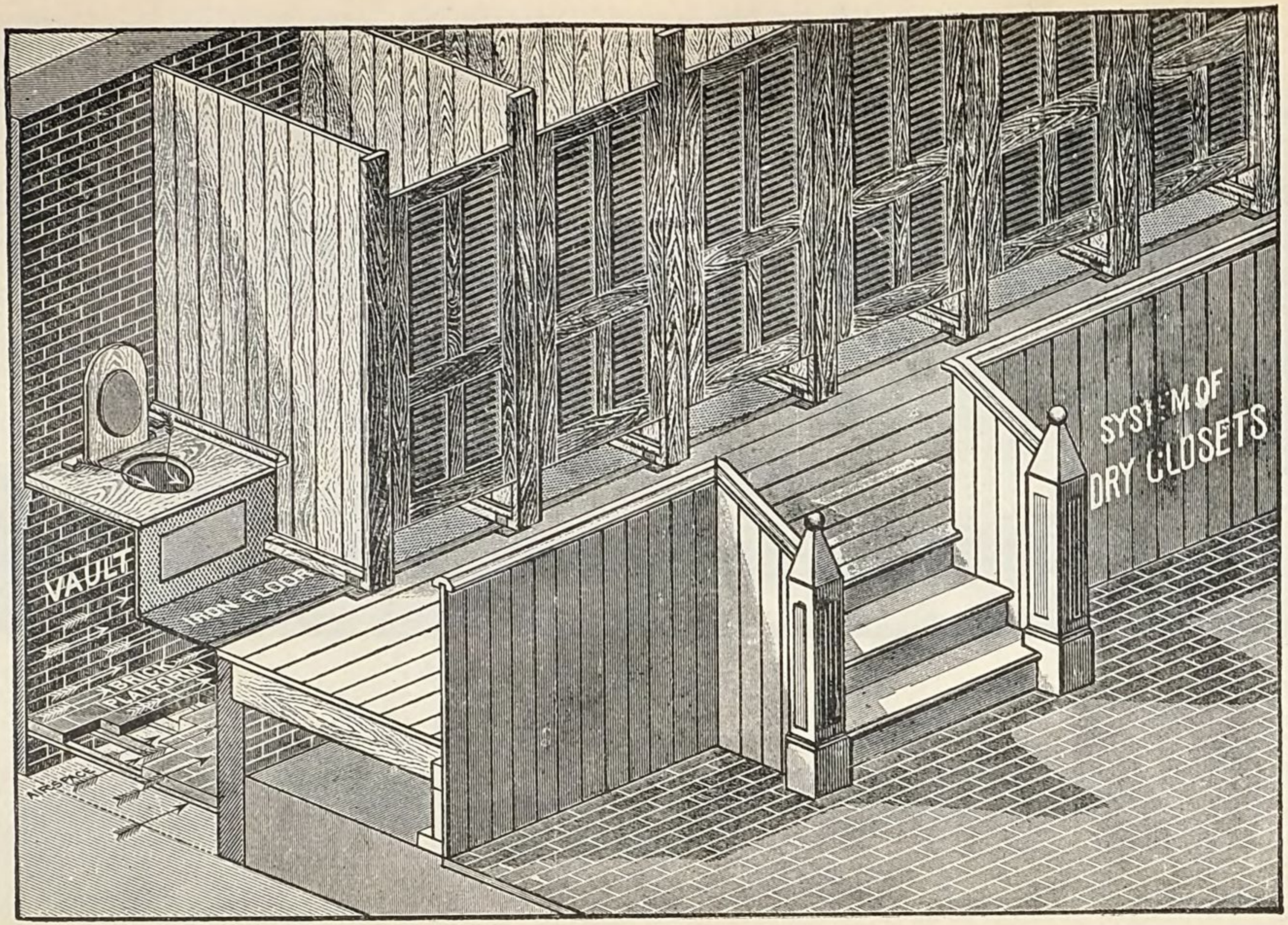


FIG. 36.—Perspective view of the system of dry closets.

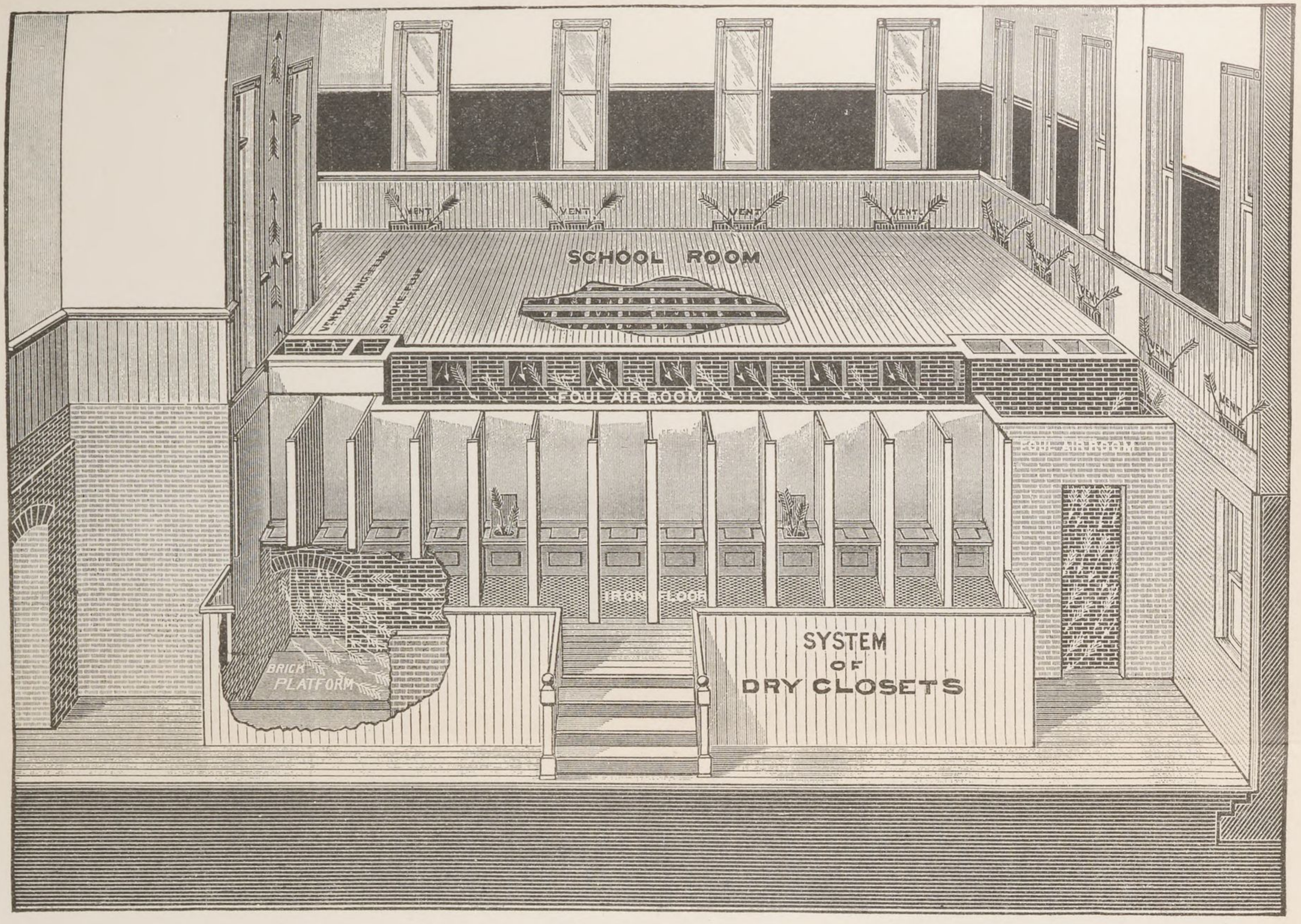


FIG. 37.—Perspective view of closets and one school room, Segur Avenue school building, Toledo, Ohio.

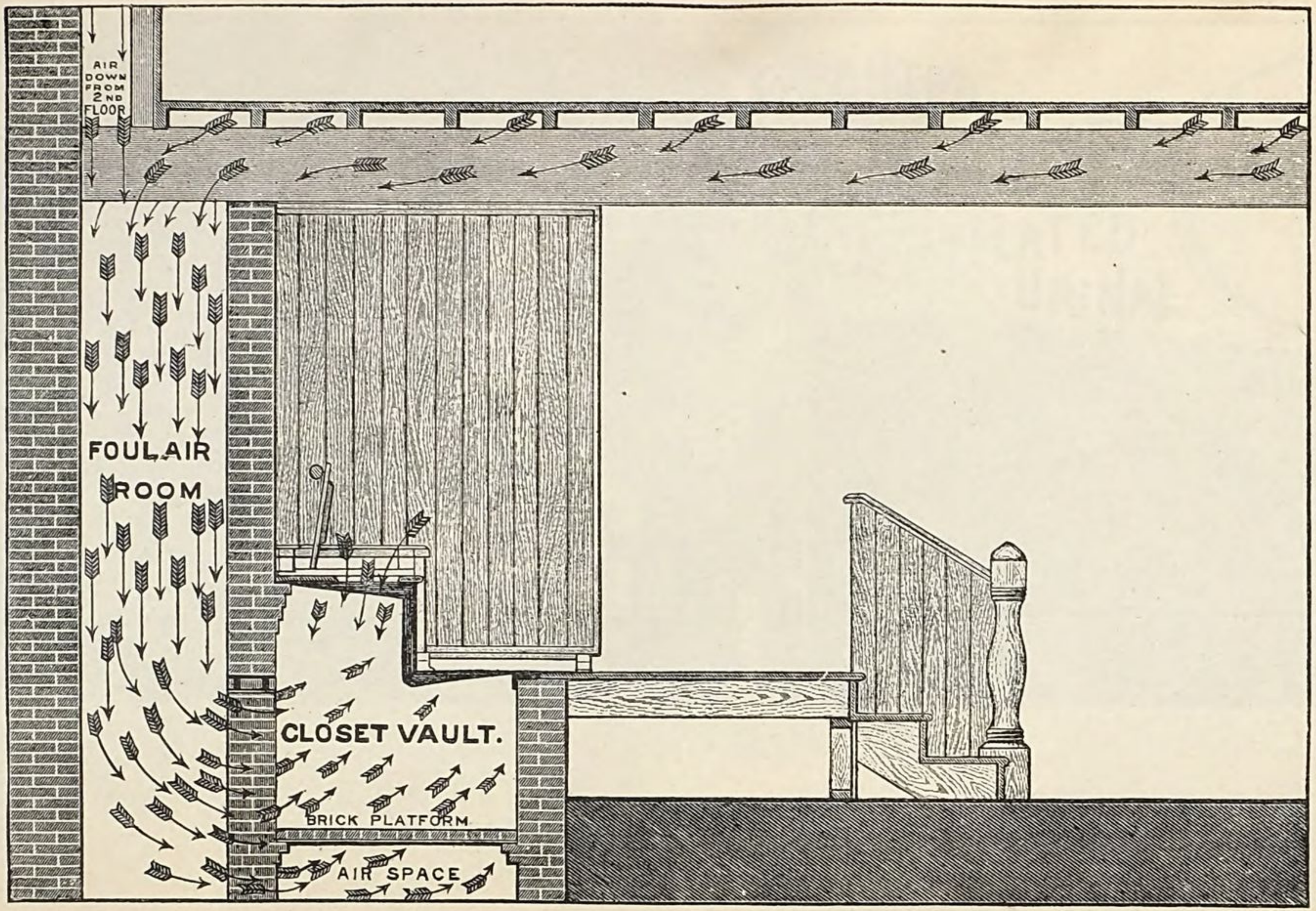


FIG. 38.—Section through dry closet vault and foul-air room, Segur Avenue school building, Toledo, Ohio. (Designed and patented by Isaac D. Smead.)

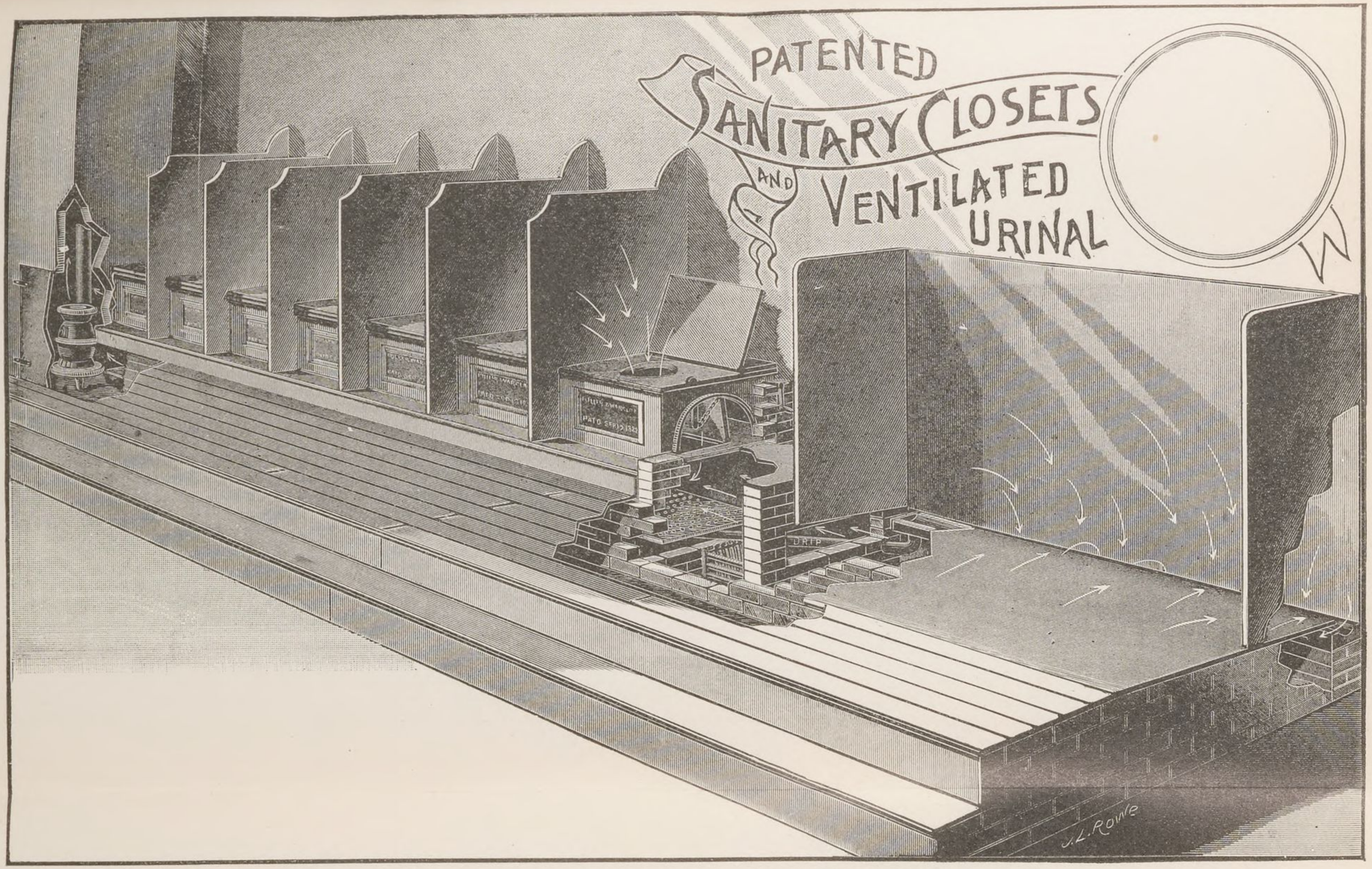


Fig. 39. [Each closet should have a door in front and the urinals should be partitioned off.—A. P. M—.]

Ventilated Urinal.

PATENTED DEC. 20th 1887.

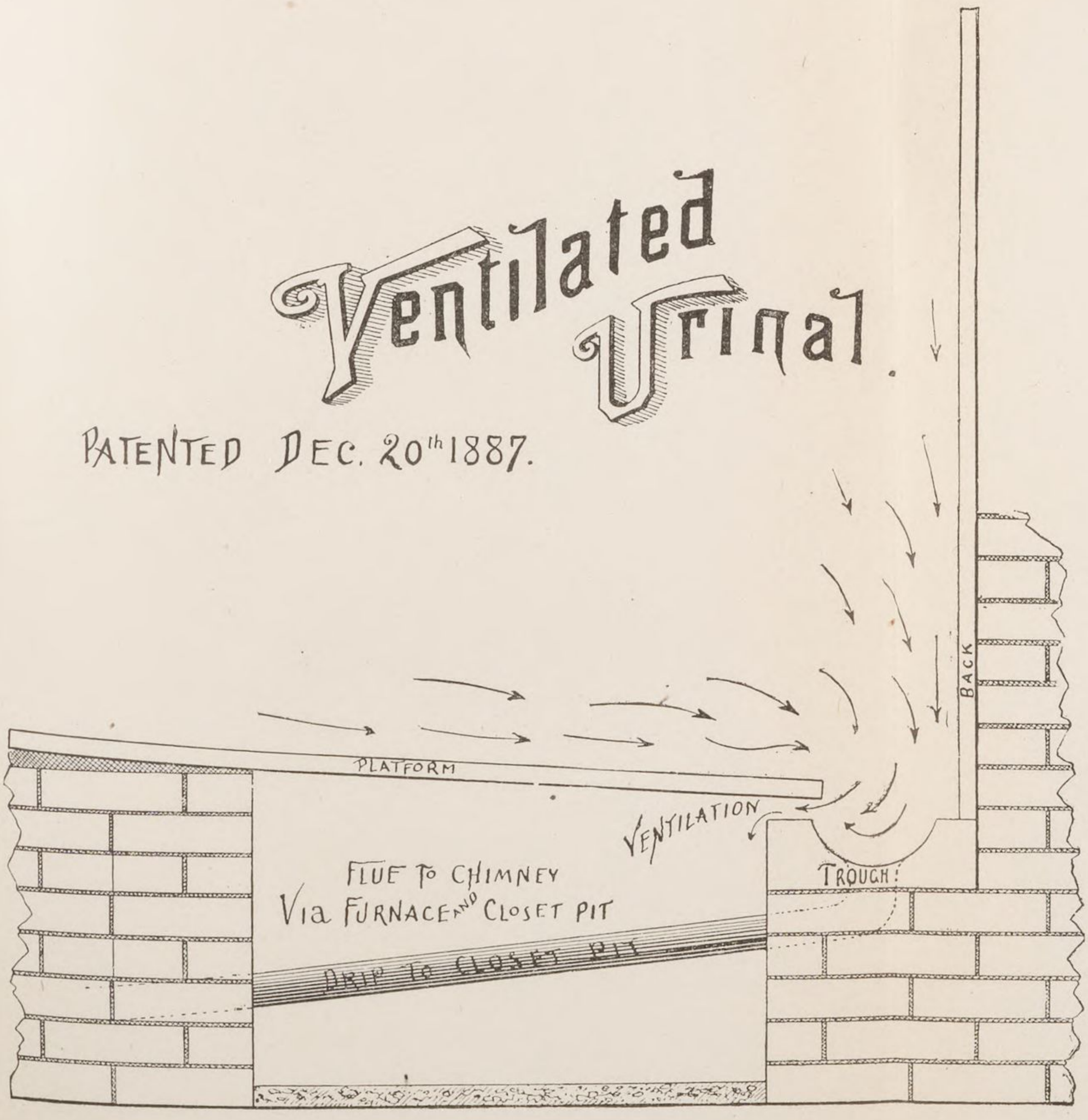


Fig. 40.

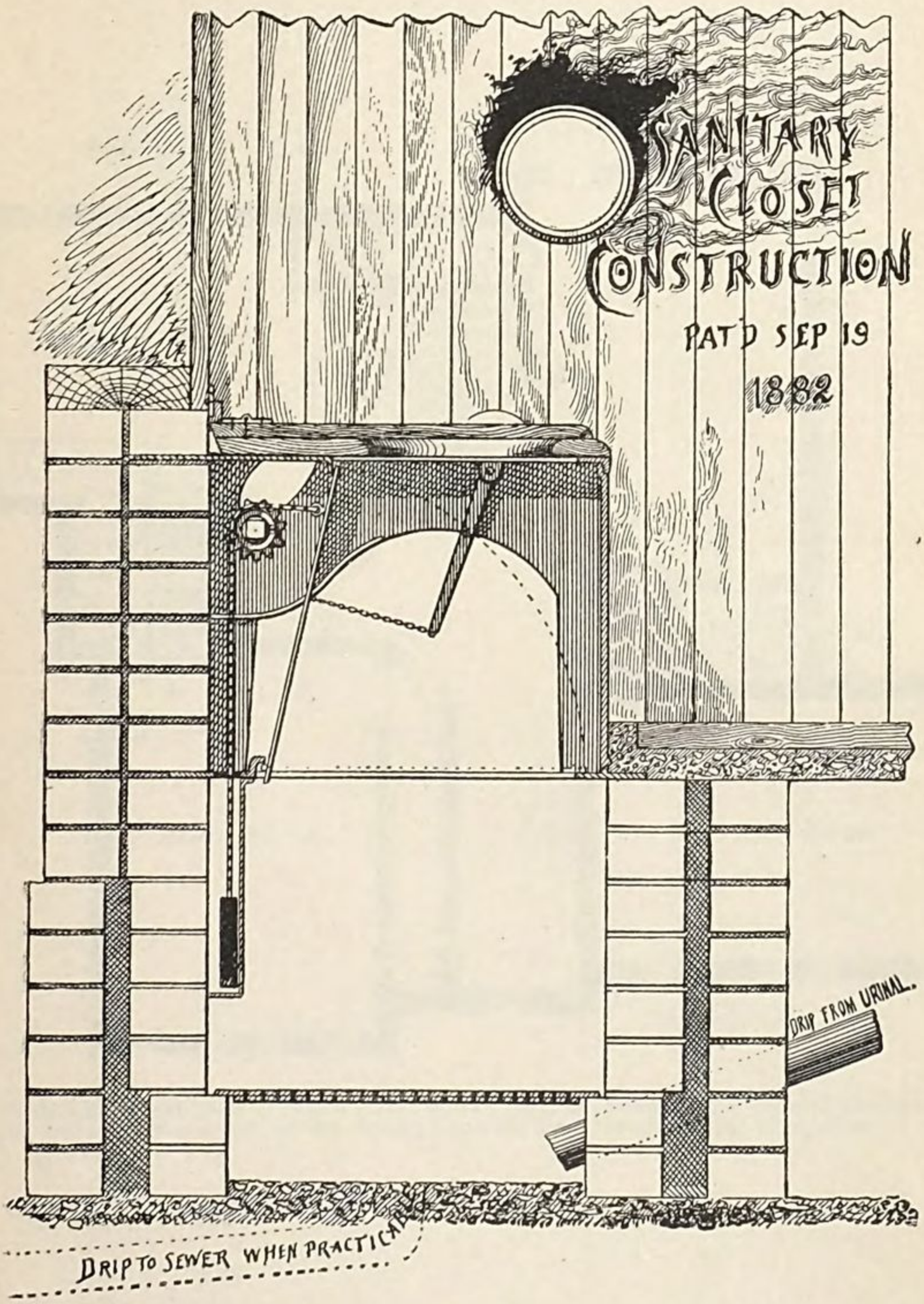

SANITARY
CLOSET
CONSTRUCTION
PAT'D SEP 19
1882
DRIP FROM URINAL.
DRIP TO SEWER WHEN PRACTICABLE

Fig. 41.

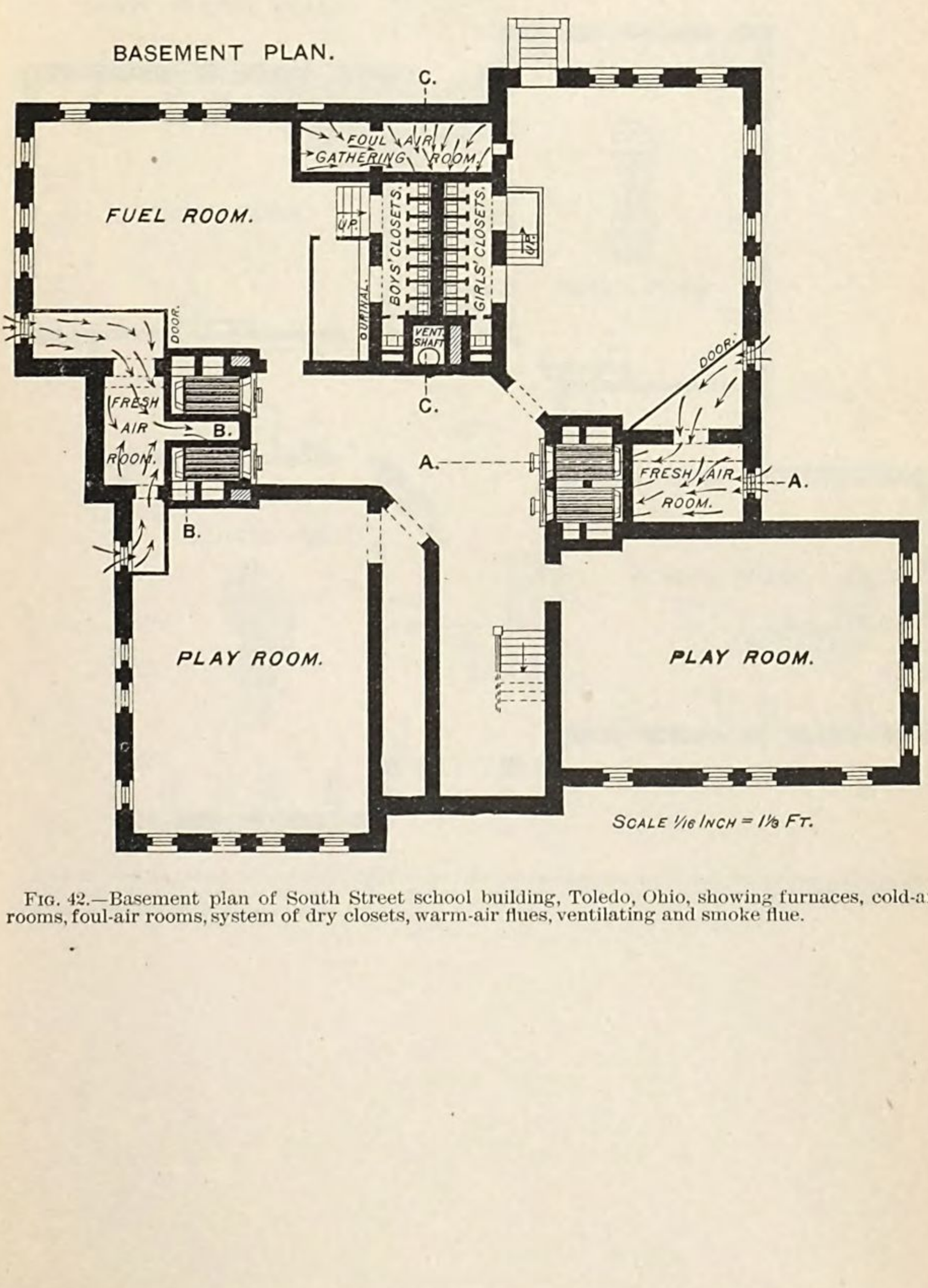


FIG. 42.—Basement plan of South Street school building, Toledo, Ohio, showing furnaces, cold-air rooms, foul-air rooms, system of dry closets, warm-air flues, ventilating and smoke flue.

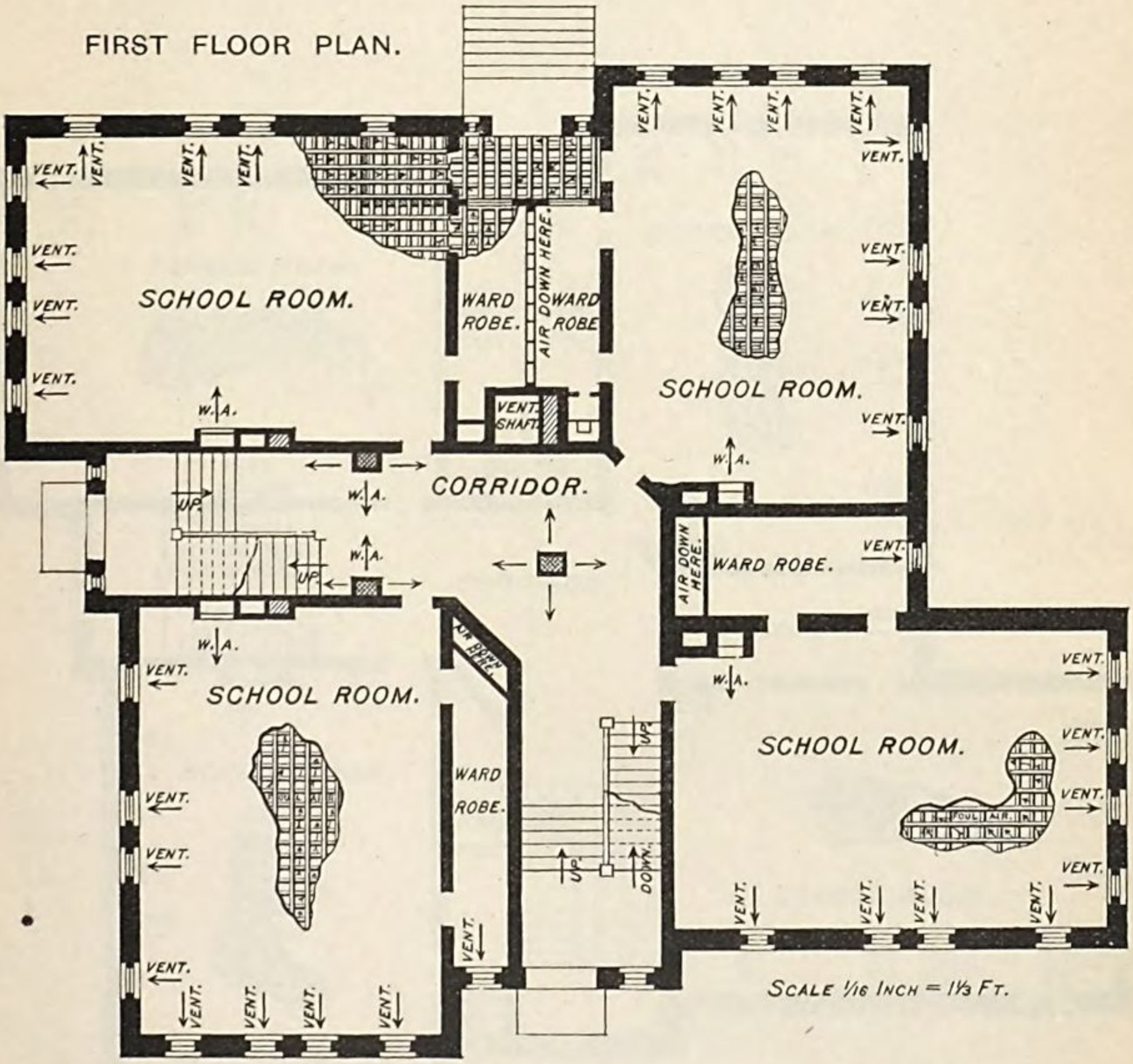


FIG. 43.—South Street school building, Toledo, Ohio; representing, by breaks in the floors, the passage of air under them; location of main air register in school rooms and corridors, and also location of foul air exits before it passes under floor.

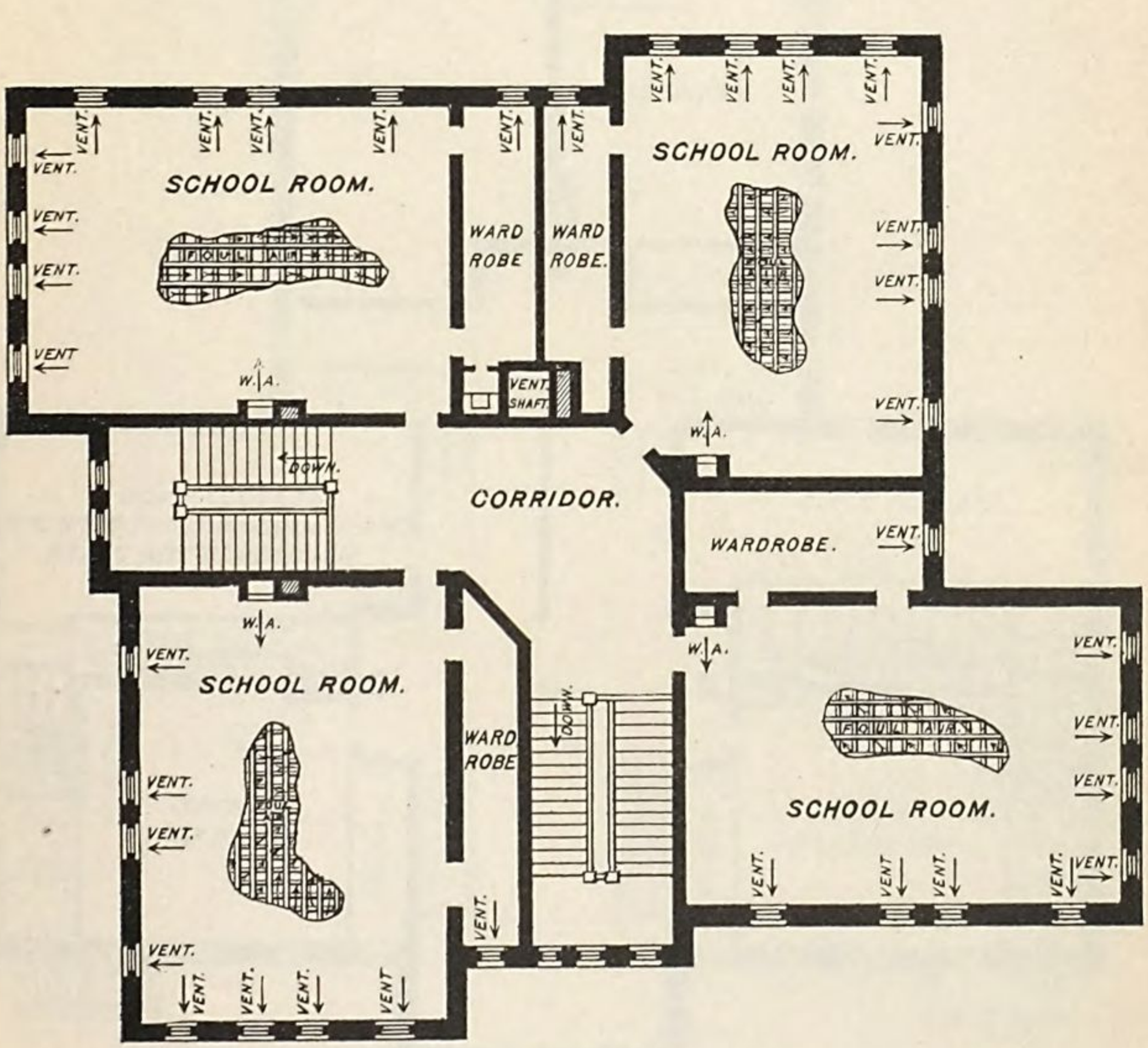


FIG. 44.—Plan of second floor, South Street school building, Toledo, Ohio.

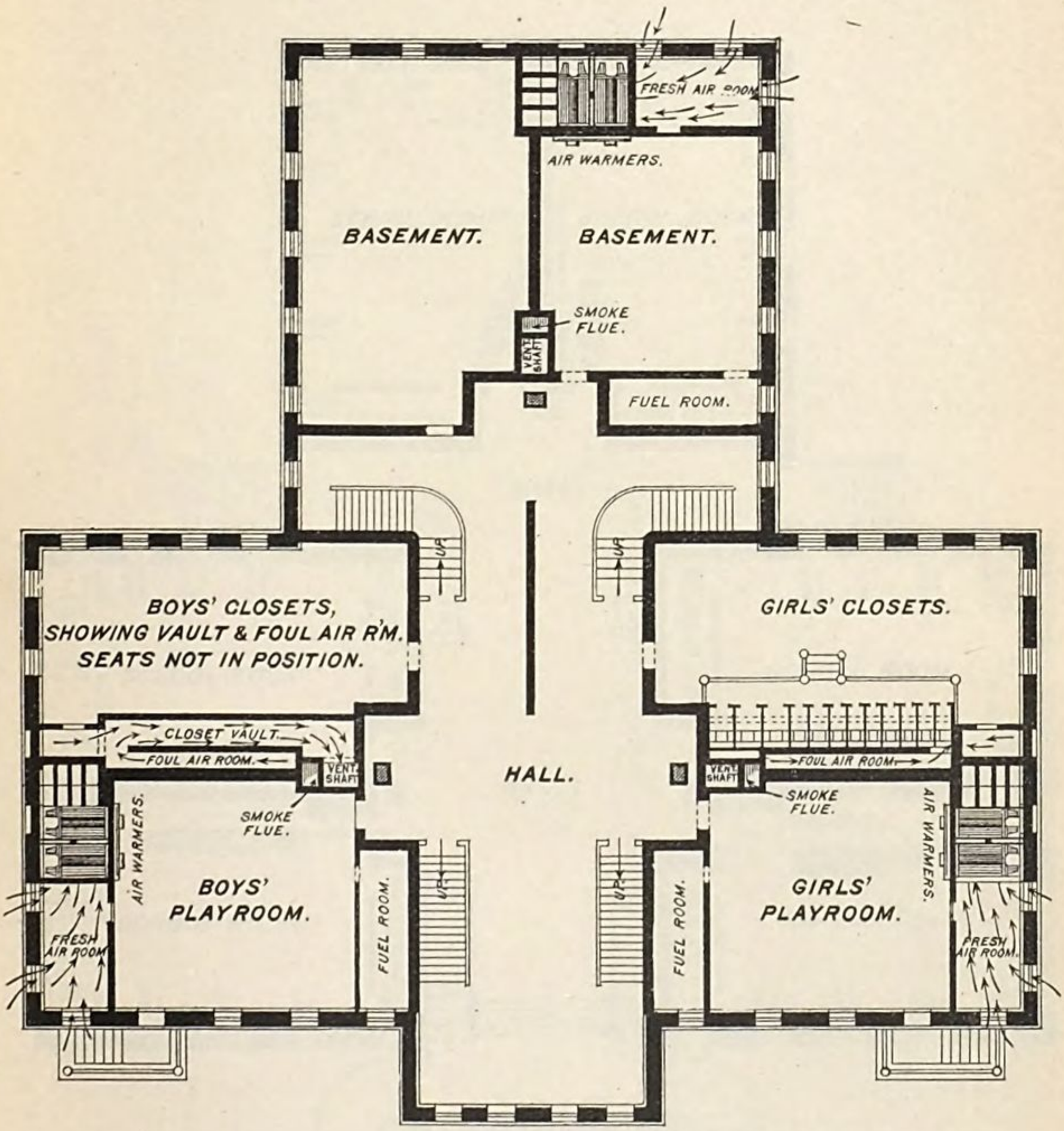


FIG. 45.—Basement plan of Segur Avenue school building, Toledo, Ohio.

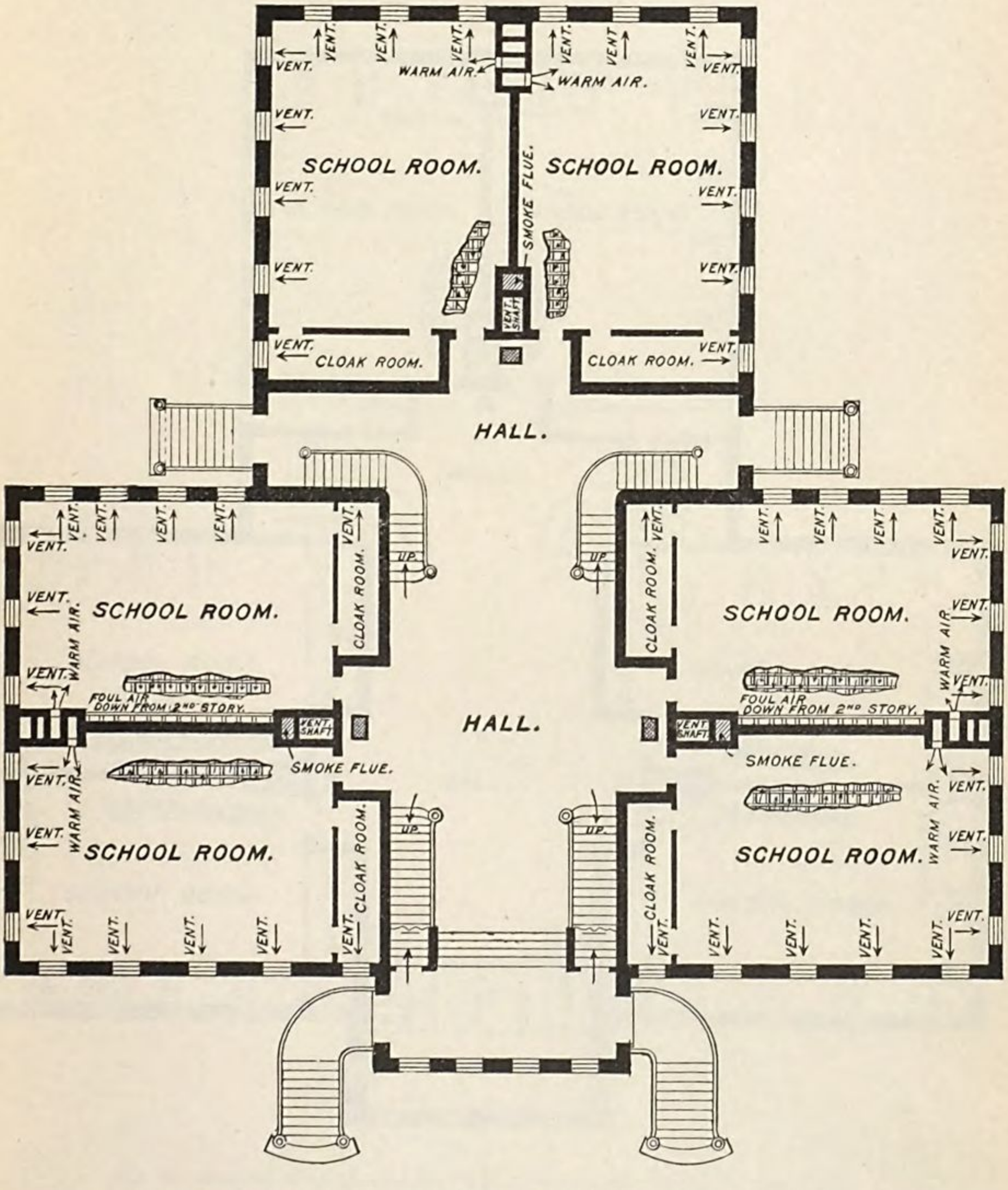


FIG. 46.—First floor plan of Segur Avenue school building, Toledo, Ohio.

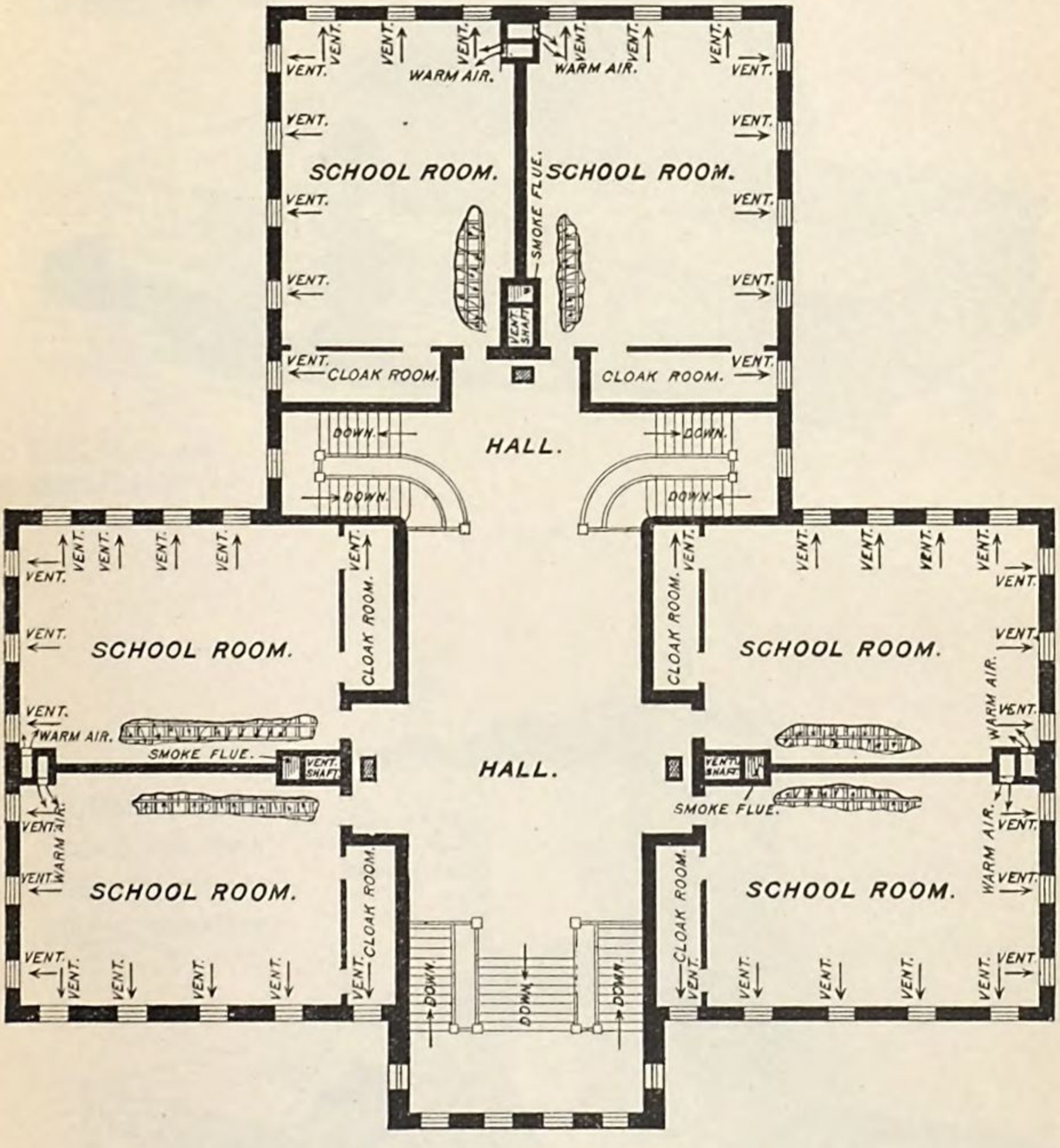


FIG. 47.—Second story plan of Segur Avenue school building, Toledo, Ohio.

COMMON SENSE
COLD AIR BOX.
Patented April 19, 1887.
"INDIRECT RADIATION."

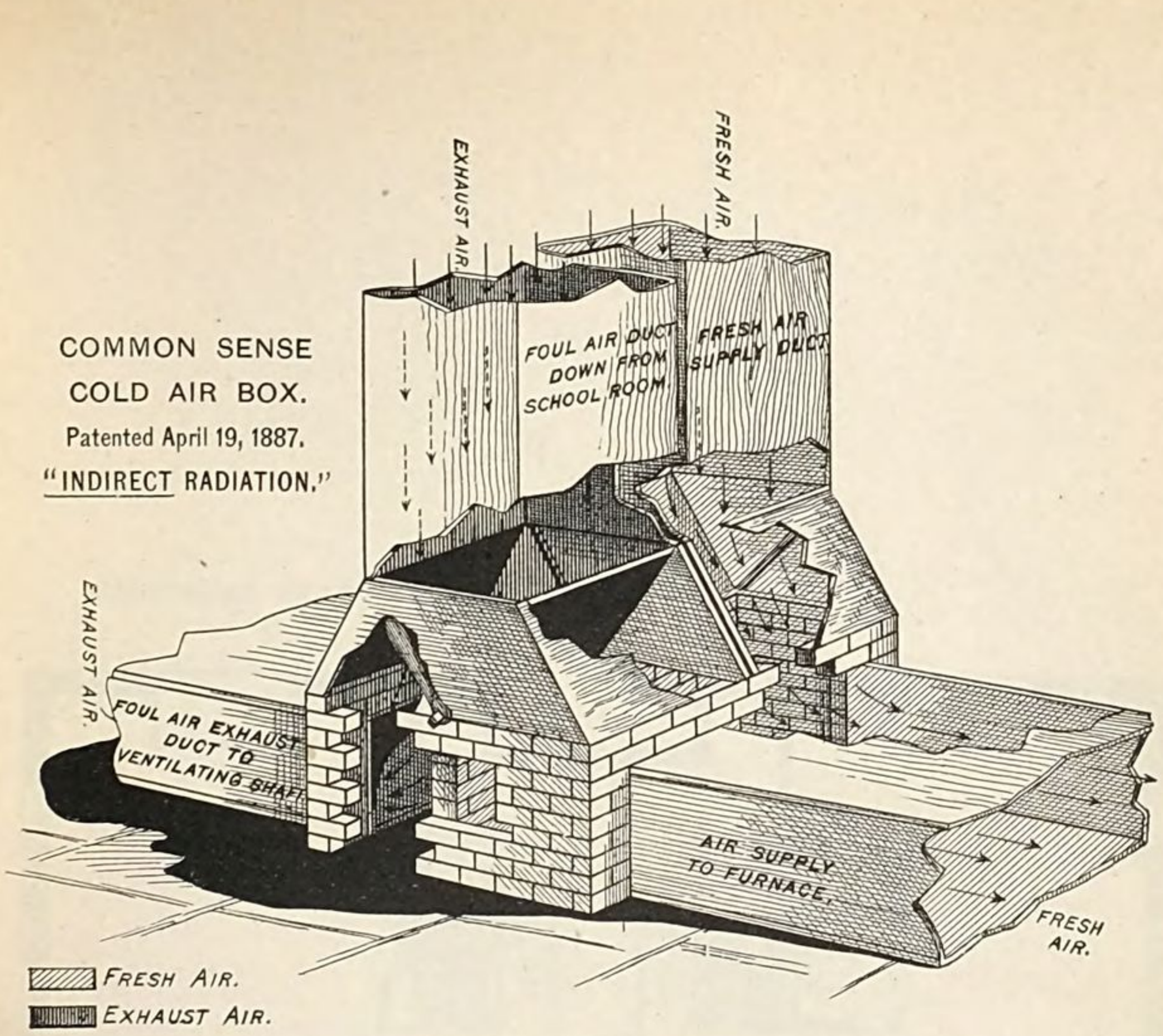


Fig. 48.

COMMON SENSE
COLD AIR BOX.
Patented April 19, 1887.
"DIRECT RADIATION."

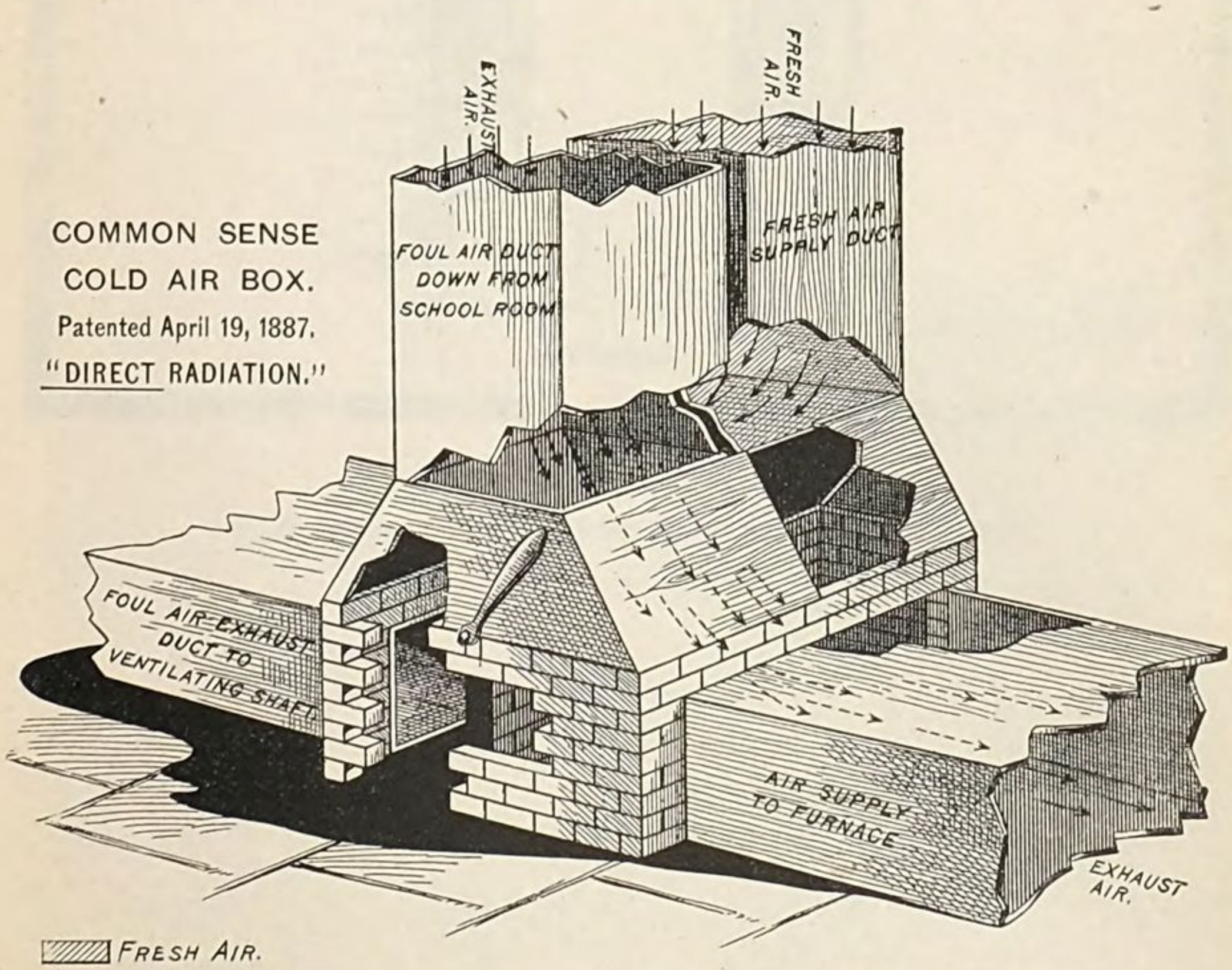


Fig. 49.

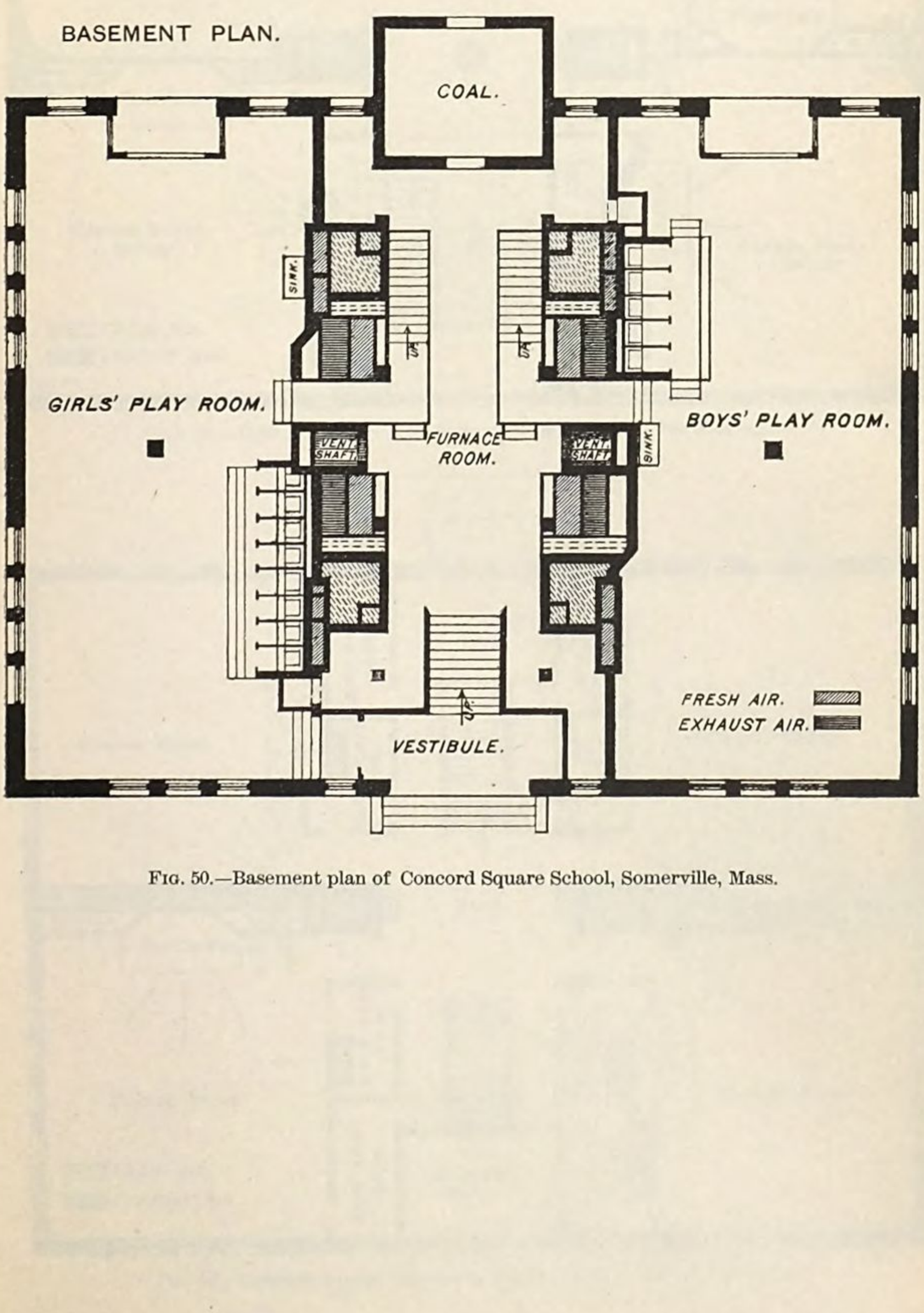


FIG. 50.—Basement plan of Concord Square School, Somerville, Mass.

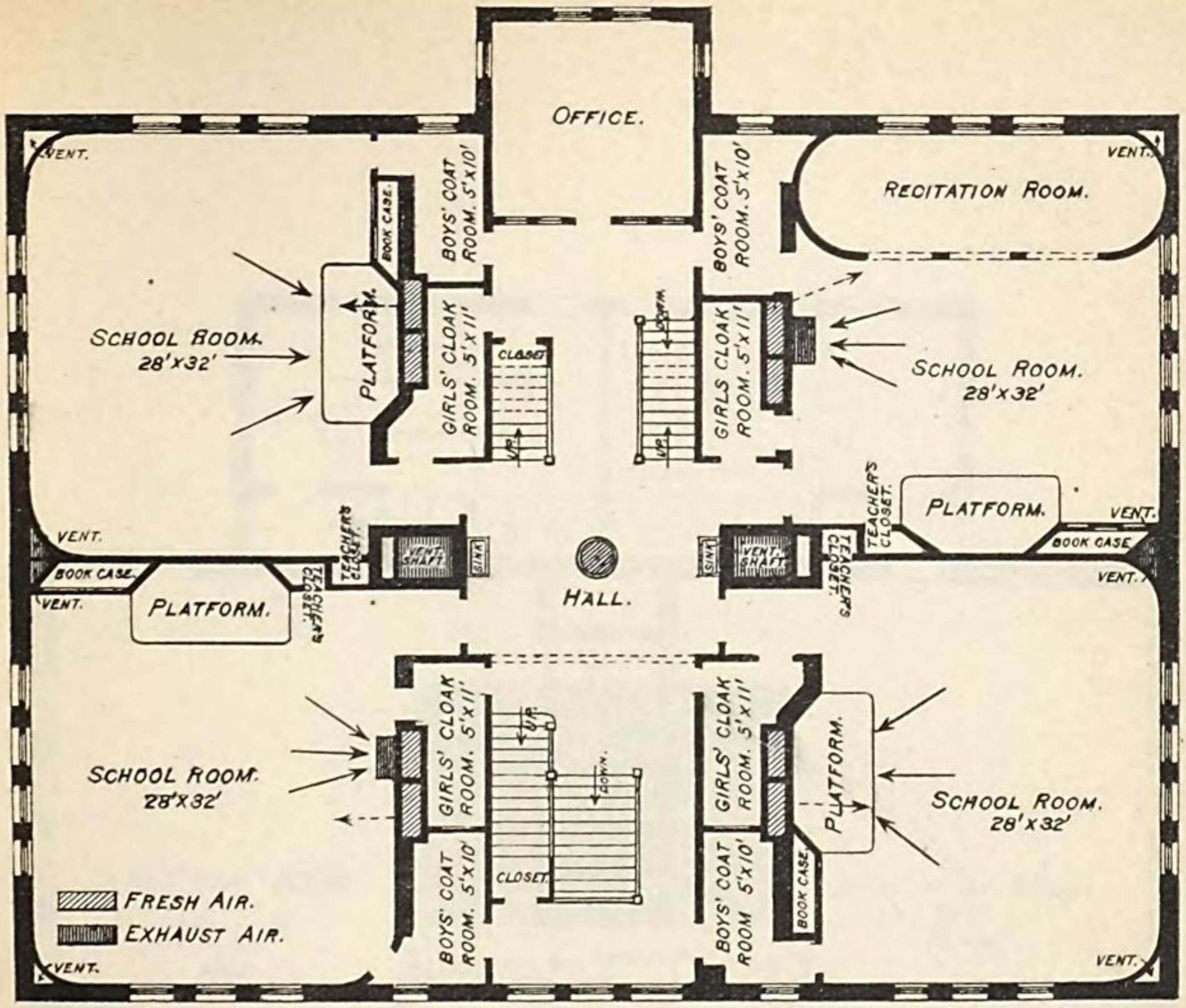


FIG. 51.—Concord Square school, Somerville, Mass. (First floor plan.)

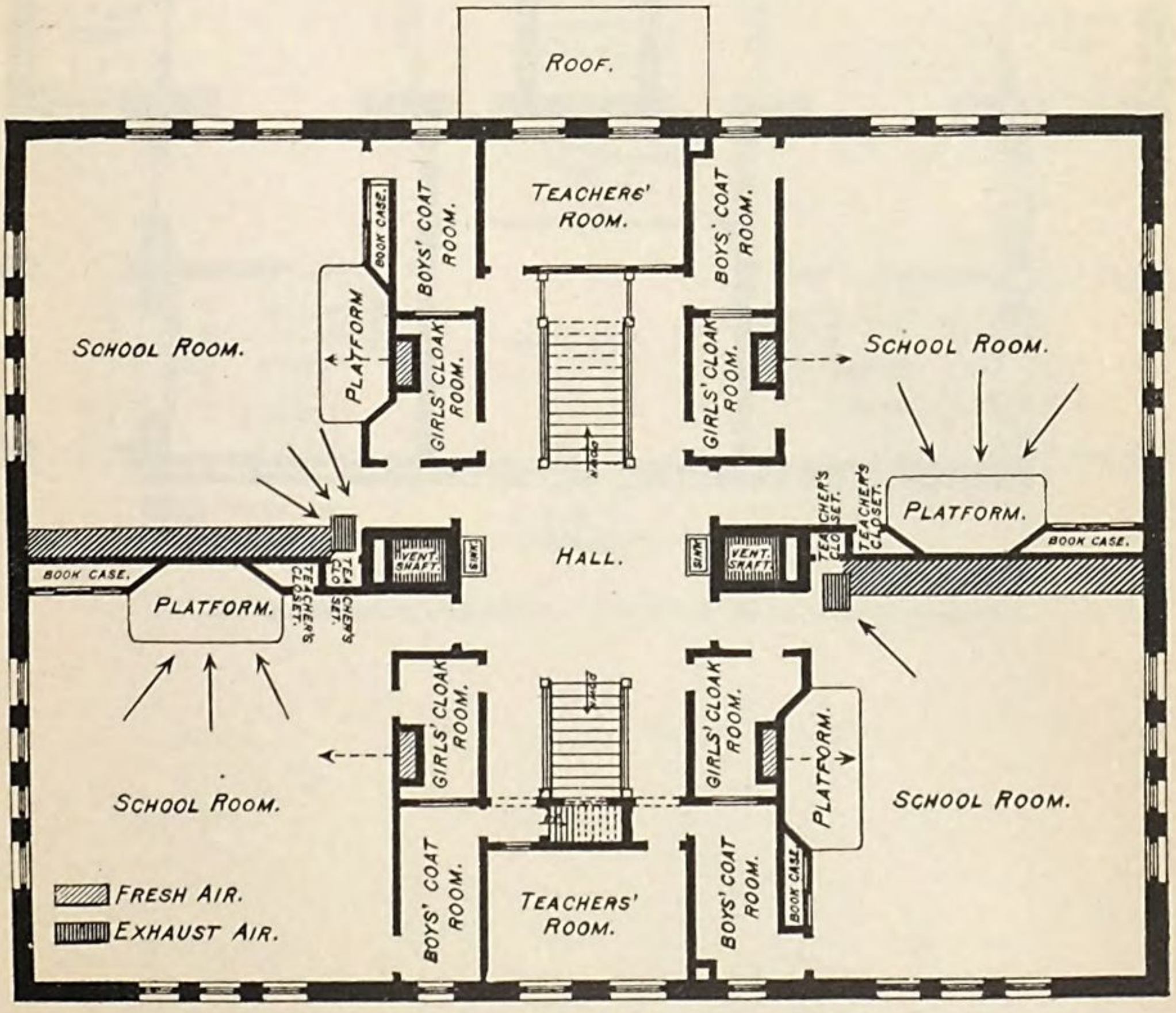


FIG. 52.—Concord Square school, Somerville, Mass. (Second floor plan.)

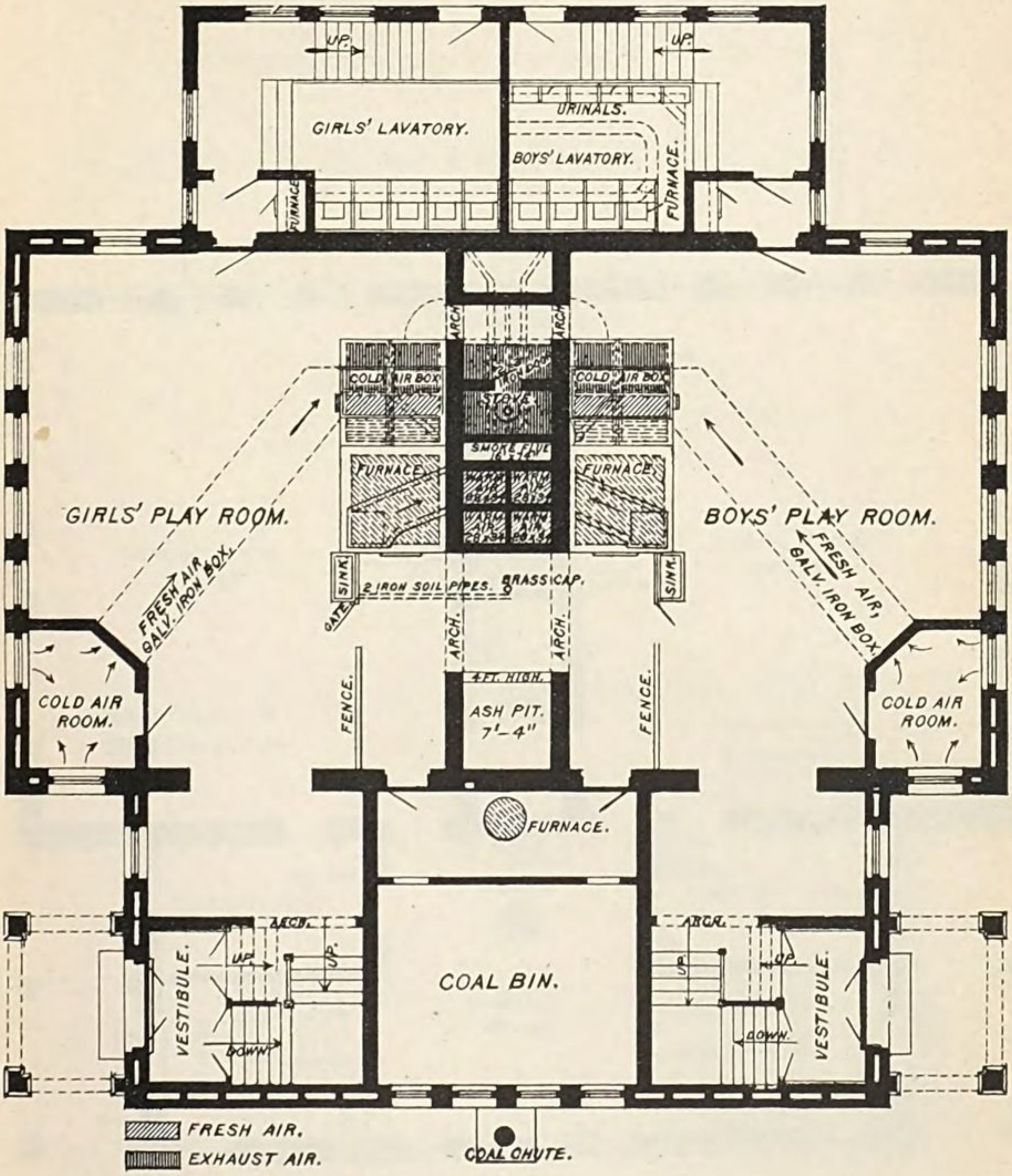


FIG. 53.—Quinsigamond schoolhouse, Worcester, Mass. (Basement plan.)

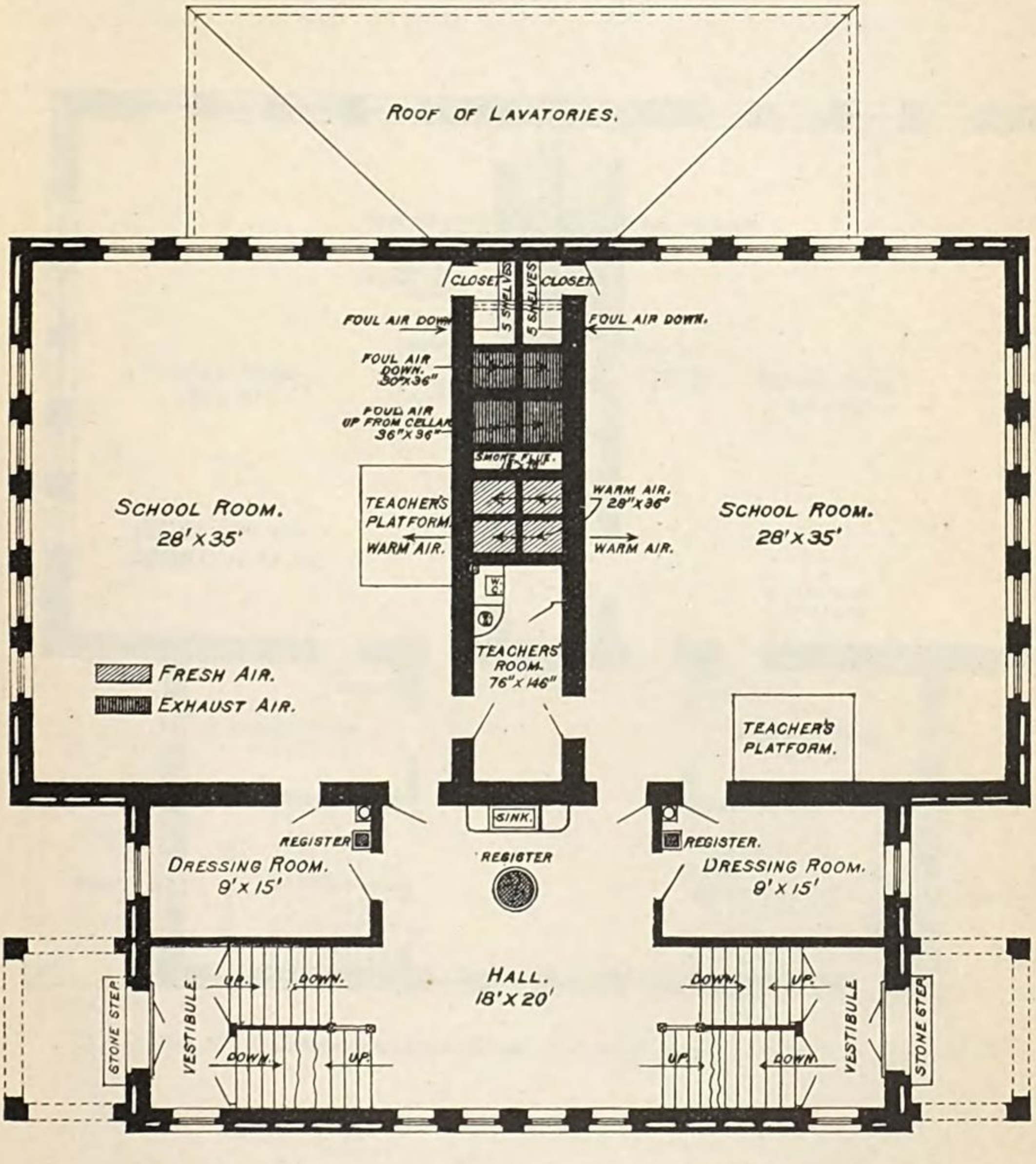


FIG. 54.—Quinsigamond schoolhouse, Worcester, Mass. (First floor plan.)

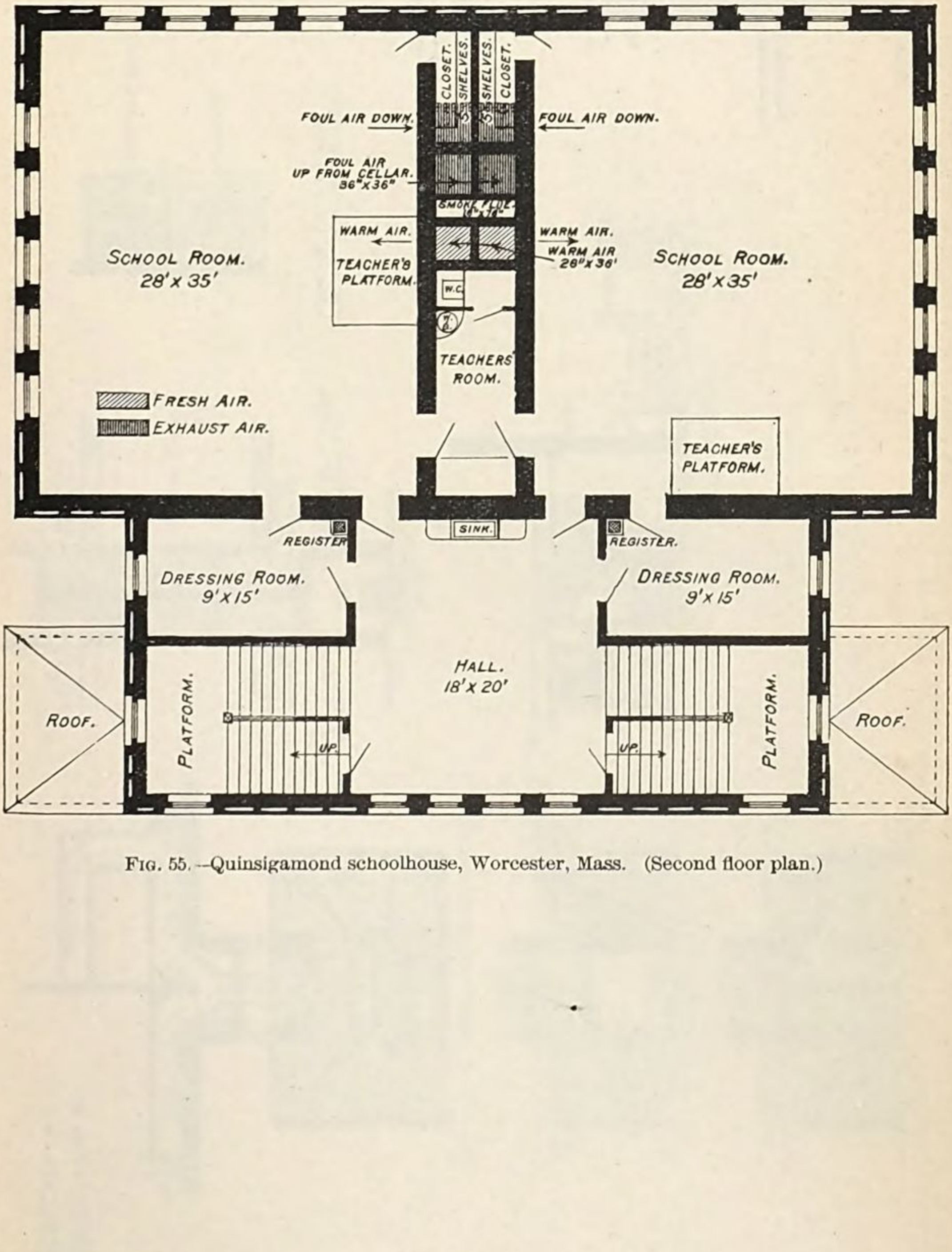


FIG. 55.—Quinsigamond schoolhouse, Worcester, Mass. (Second floor plan.)

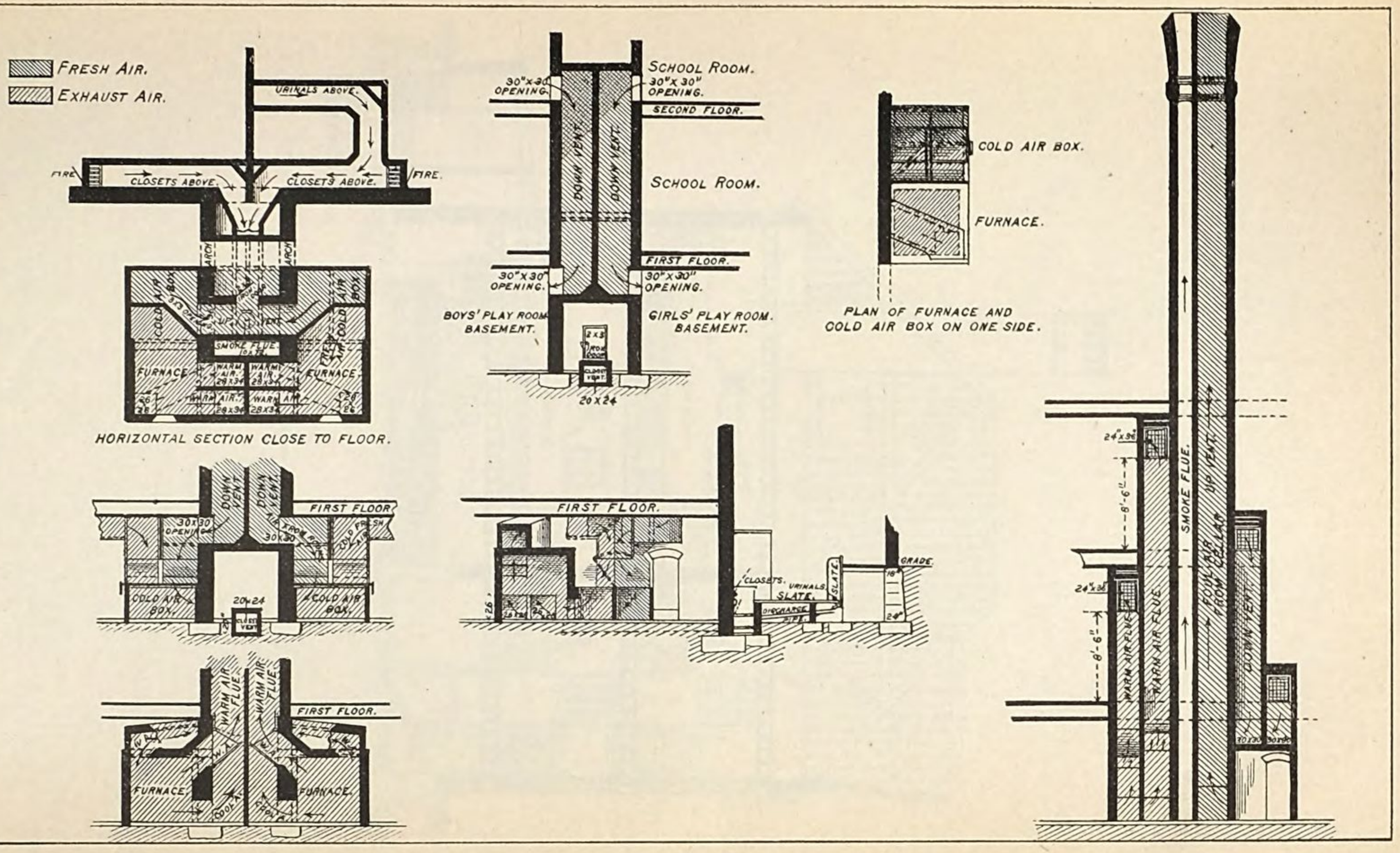


FIG. 56.—Quinsigamond schoolhouse, Worcester, Mass. Details showing brickwork required for warming, ventilation, and sanitaries.

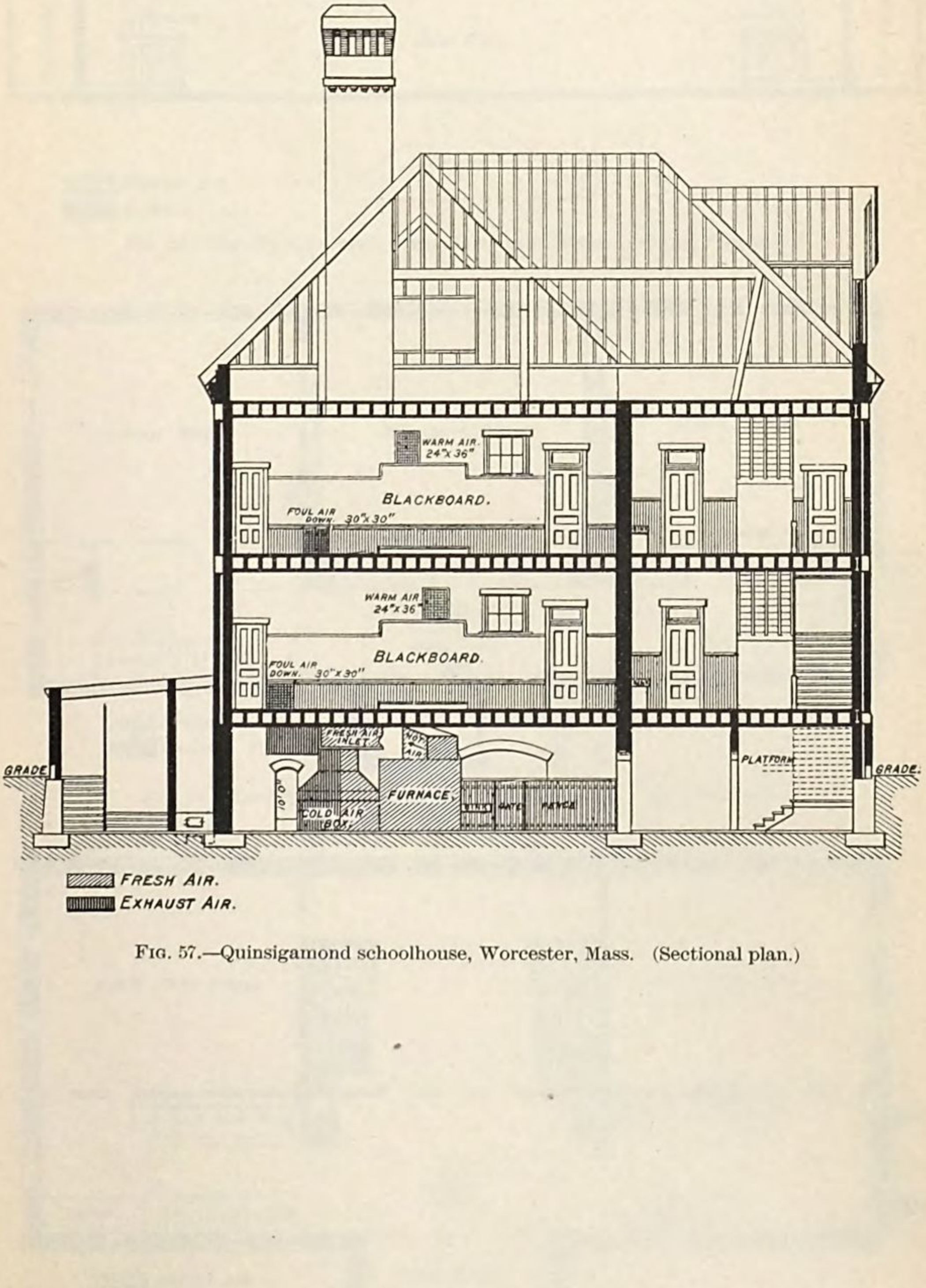


FIG. 57.—Quinsigamond schoolhouse, Worcester, Mass. (Sectional plan.)

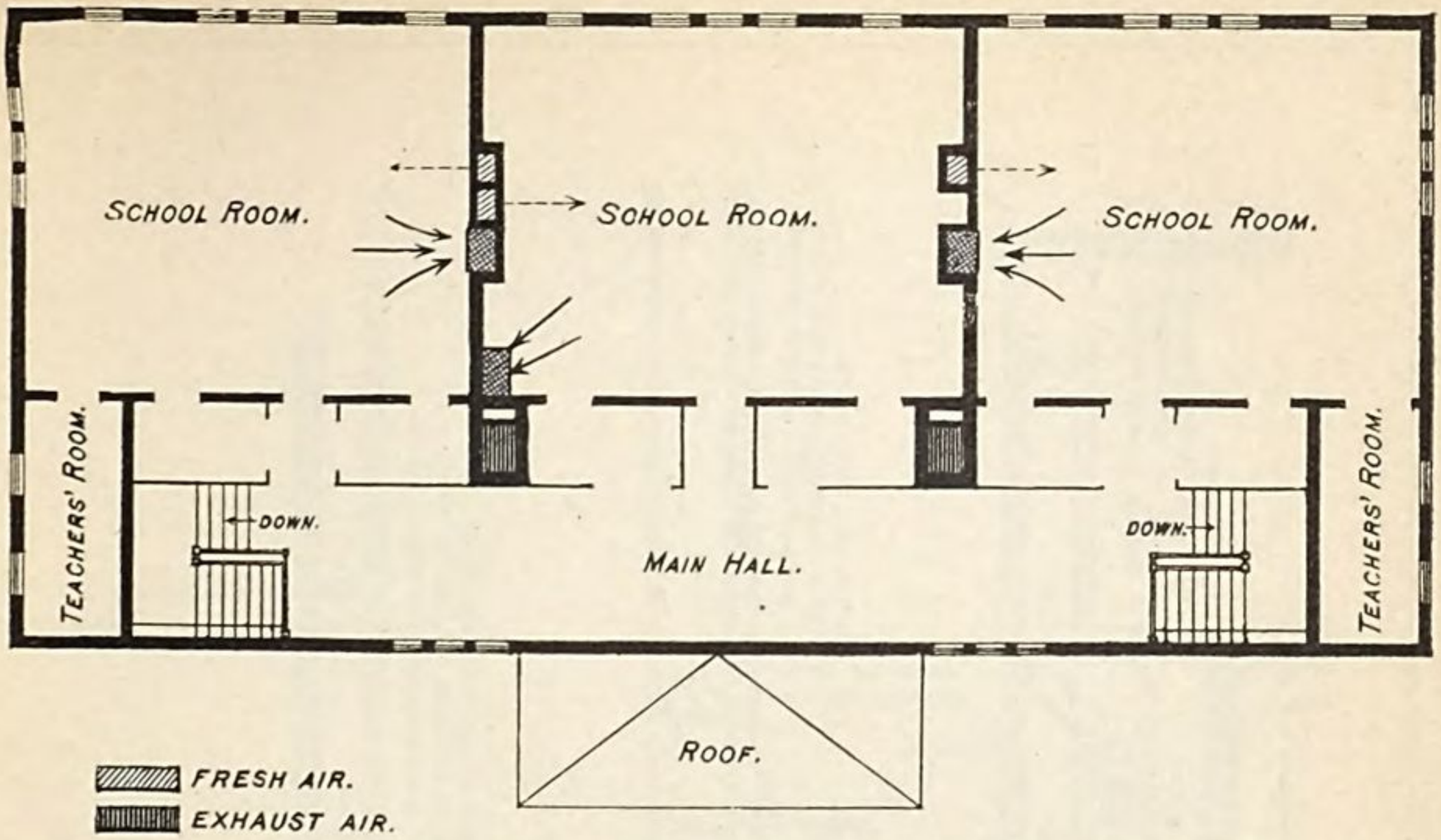


FIG. 58.—The Bryant school, Great Barrington, Mass. (Second floor plan.)

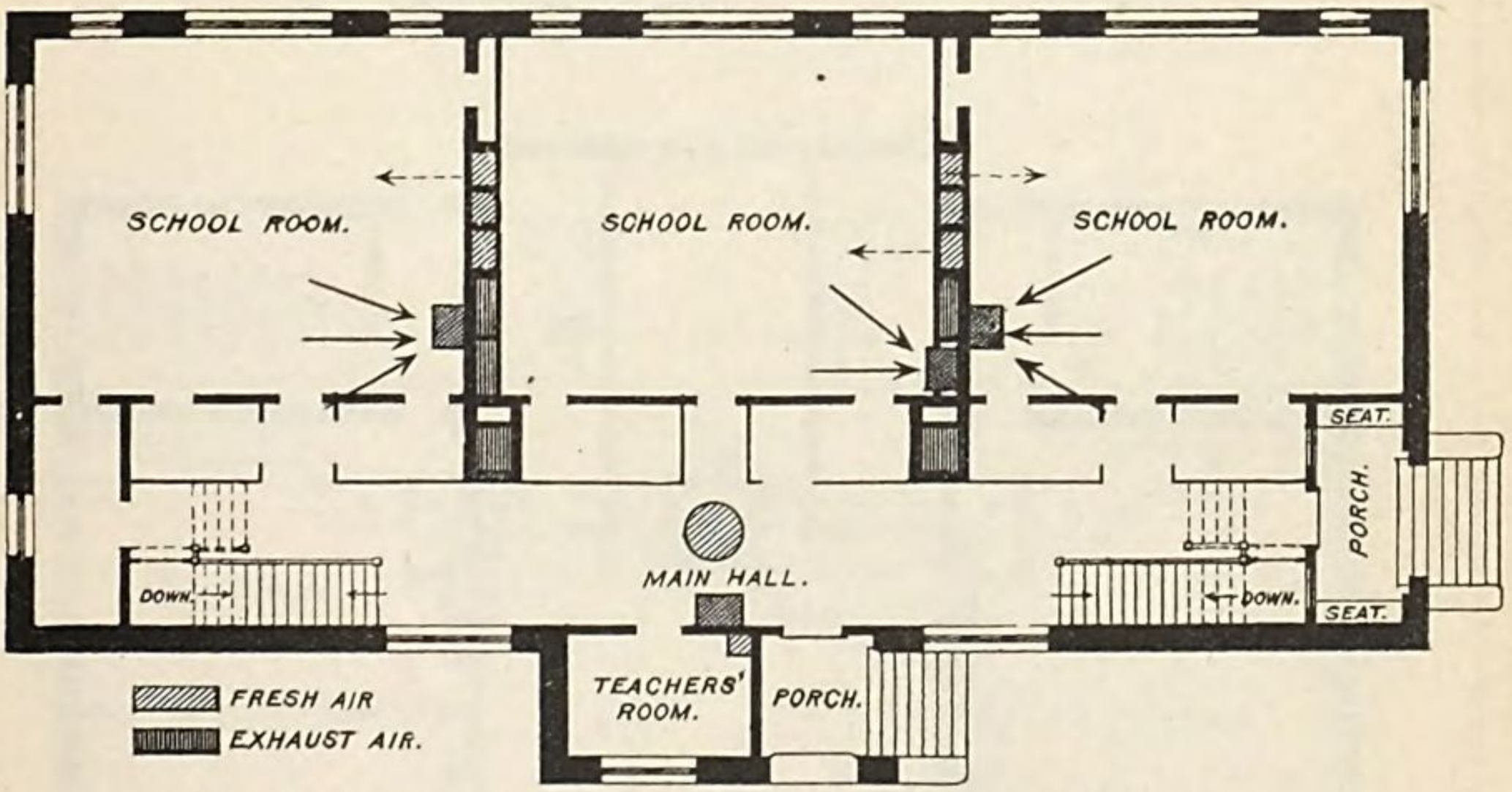


FIG. 59.—The Bryant school, Great Barrington, Mass. (First floor plan.)

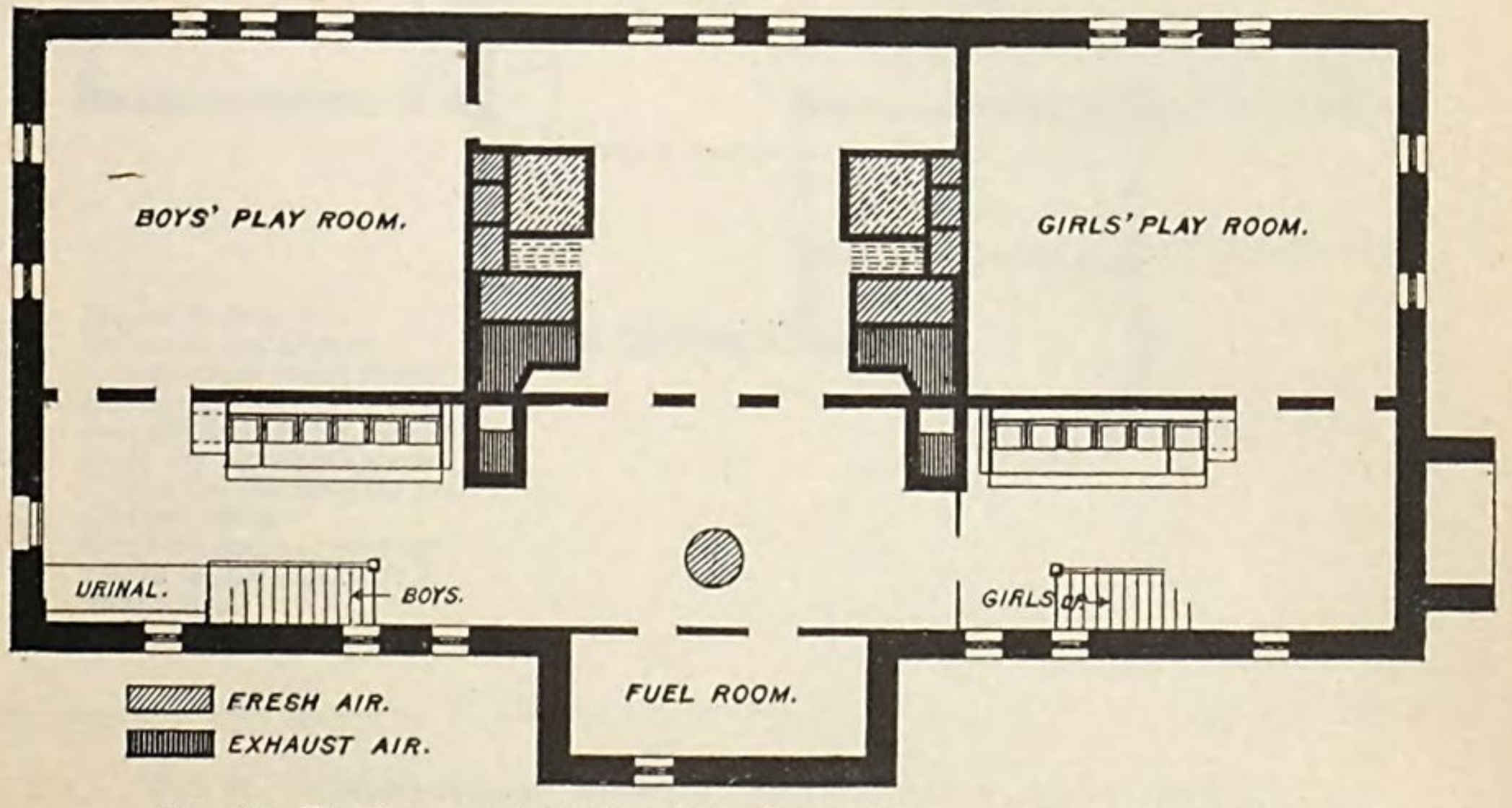
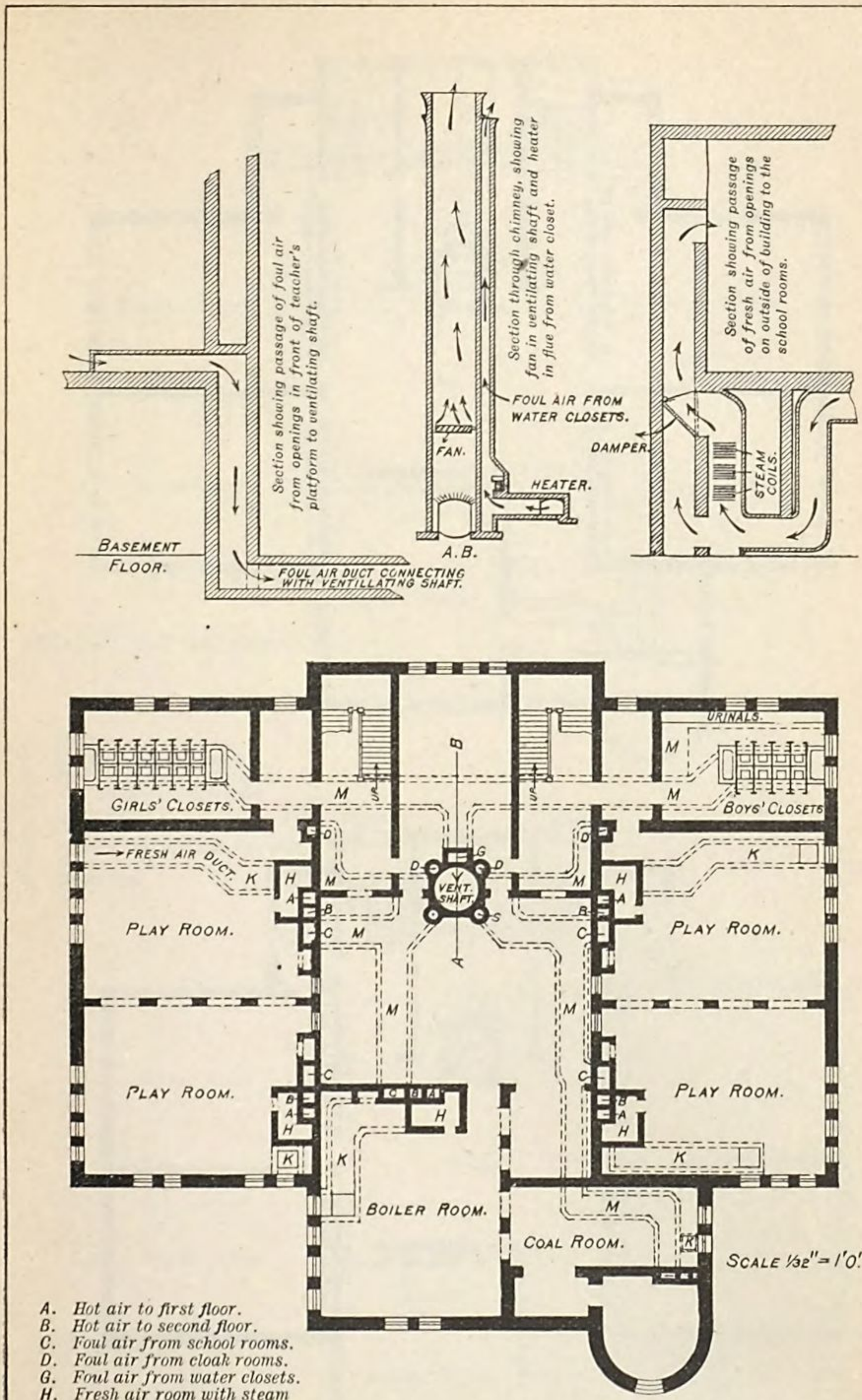
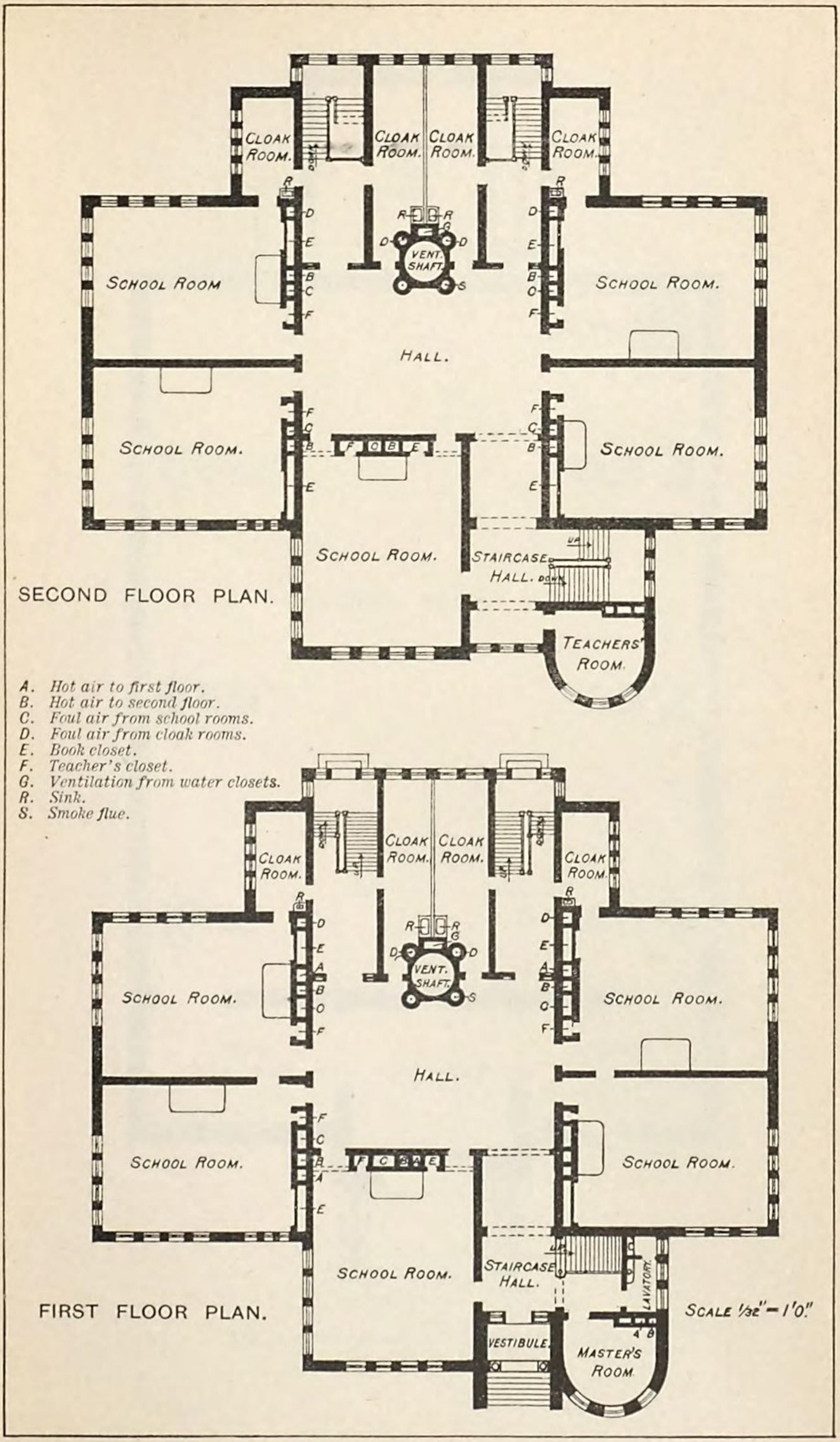


FIG. 60.—The Bryant school, Great Barrington, Mass. (Basement floor plan.)


Section showing passage of foul air from openings in front of teacher's platform to ventilating shaft.
Section through chimney, showing fan in ventilating shaft and heater in flue from water closet.
Section showing passage of fresh air from openings on outside of building to the school rooms.
FOUL AIR FROM WATER CLOSETS.
FAN.
HEATER.
DAMPER.
STEAM COILS.
BASEMENT FLOOR.
A.B.
FOUL AIR DUCT CONNECTING WITH VENTILLATING SHAFT.
GIRLS' CLOSETS.
BOYS' CLOSETS
URINALS.
FRESH AIR DUCT.
VENT. SHAFT.
PLAY ROOM.
PLAY ROOM.
PLAY ROOM.
PLAY ROOM.
BOILER ROOM.
COAL ROOM.
SCALE 1/32" = 1'0"

A. *Hot air to first floor.*
B. *Hot air to second floor.*
C. *Foul air from school rooms.*
D. *Foul air from cloak rooms.*
G. *Foul air from water closets.*
H. *Fresh air room with steam coils for warming the air.*
K. *Foul air ducts.*
M. *Fresh air ducts connecting with ventilating shaft V.*
S. *Smoke flue.*

FIG. 61.—Salisbury Street schoolhouse, Worcester, Mass. (Basement plan.)



A. *Hot air to first floor.*
B. *Hot air to second floor.*
C. *Foul air from school rooms.*
D. *Foul air from cloak rooms.*
E. *Book closet.*
F. *Teacher's closet.*
G. *Ventilation from water closets.*
R. *Sink.*
S. *Smoke flue.*

FIG. 62.—Salisbury Street schoolhouse, Worcester, Mass.

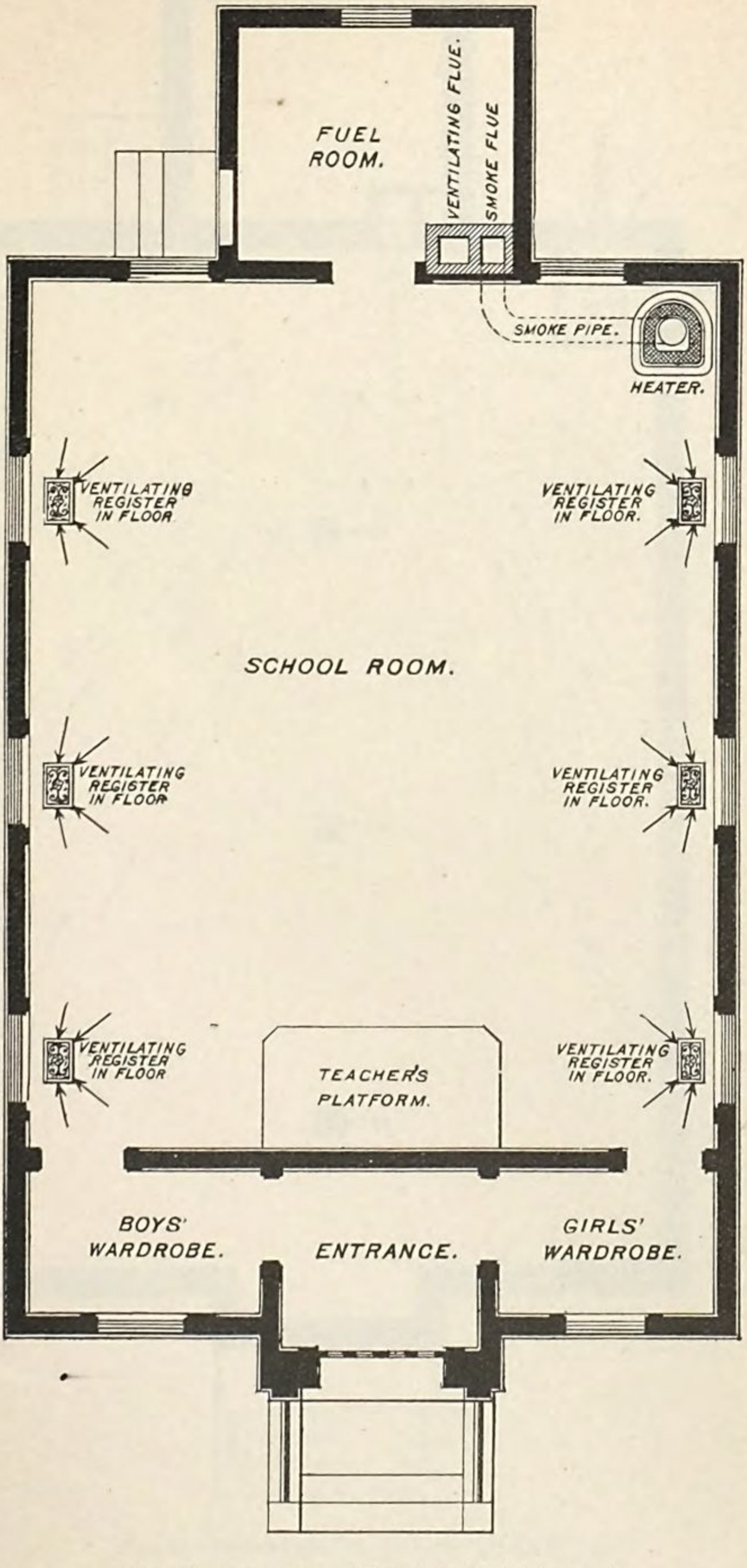


FIG. 63.—Floor plan of the model district school.

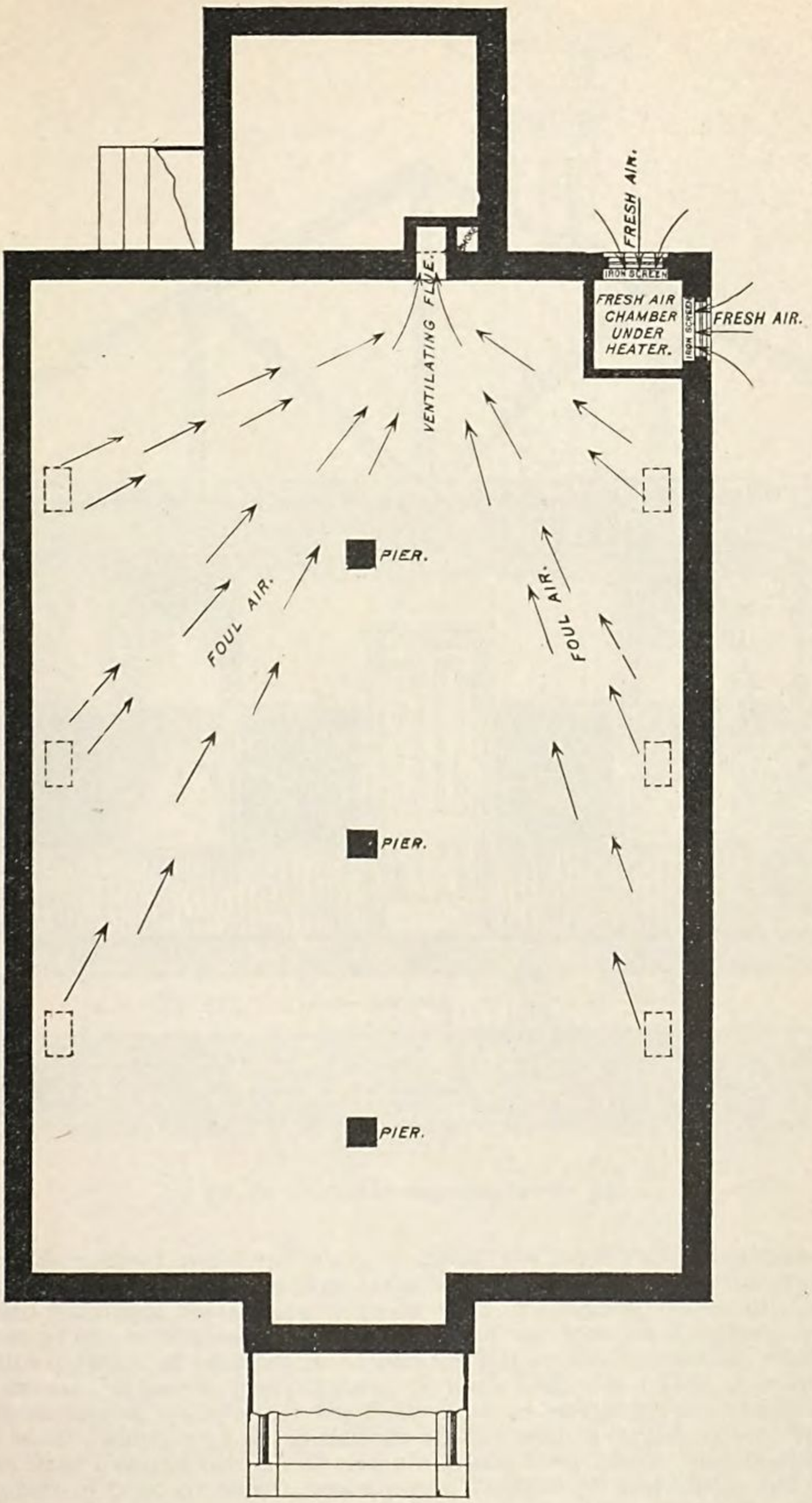


FIG. 64.—Ground plan of the model district school.

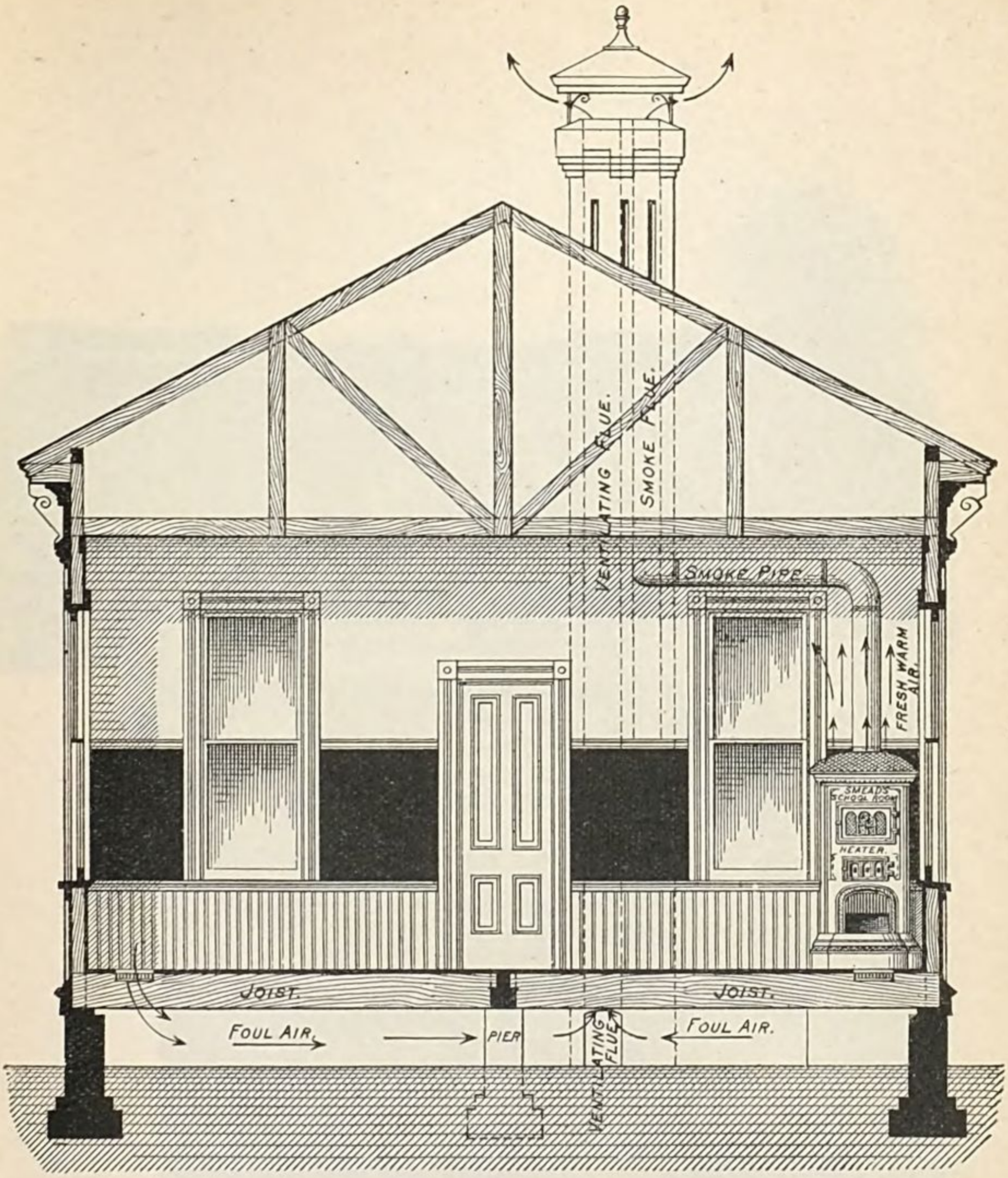


FIG. 65.—Section of the model district school.

The model district and ward school building. —Considerable sums are expended in arranging to warm and ventilate large school buildings, while the district school and ward buildings are always warmed with a common stove, and generally a *second-hand* one from some larger building, and no attention whatever is paid to the important question of ventilation. Holes are left in the foundation walls through which the air can pass to prevent decay of joists and sills. This, of course, renders the temperature of space under the floor same as temperature outside (anywhere from 0 to 30° below), and the pupils sit all day with a board 1 inch in thickness between their feet and this sea of cold air, while their heads and bodies are in a temperature of from 40° to 90°, according to distance of seat from the stove, and this, too, in air which may have been breathed a dozen times. Who can wonder that they have cold feet, and are sometimes restless and unwilling to study, and that many are sick and unable to attend school more than one-half or two-thirds of the time? The plan of warming and ventilating buildings of this class represented above can not but commend itself to all who will for a moment consider the two conditions. An entire change of air in the building every 30 minutes, temperature the same in all parts of the room, warm instead of cold air under the floor, should certainly be worth all it costs.

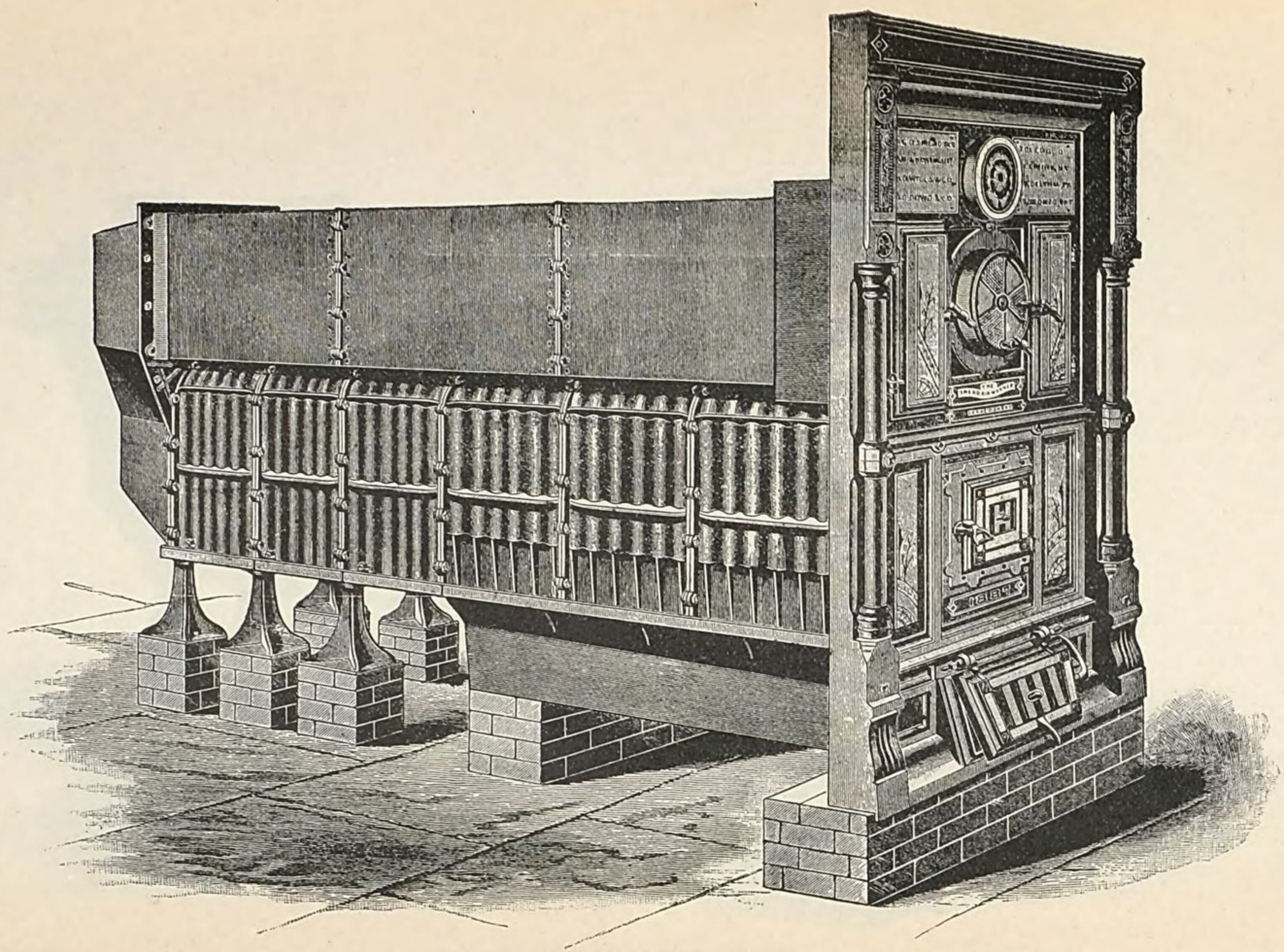


FIG. 66.—The air-warmer. [Large radiating surface, moderately heated.—A. P. M—.]

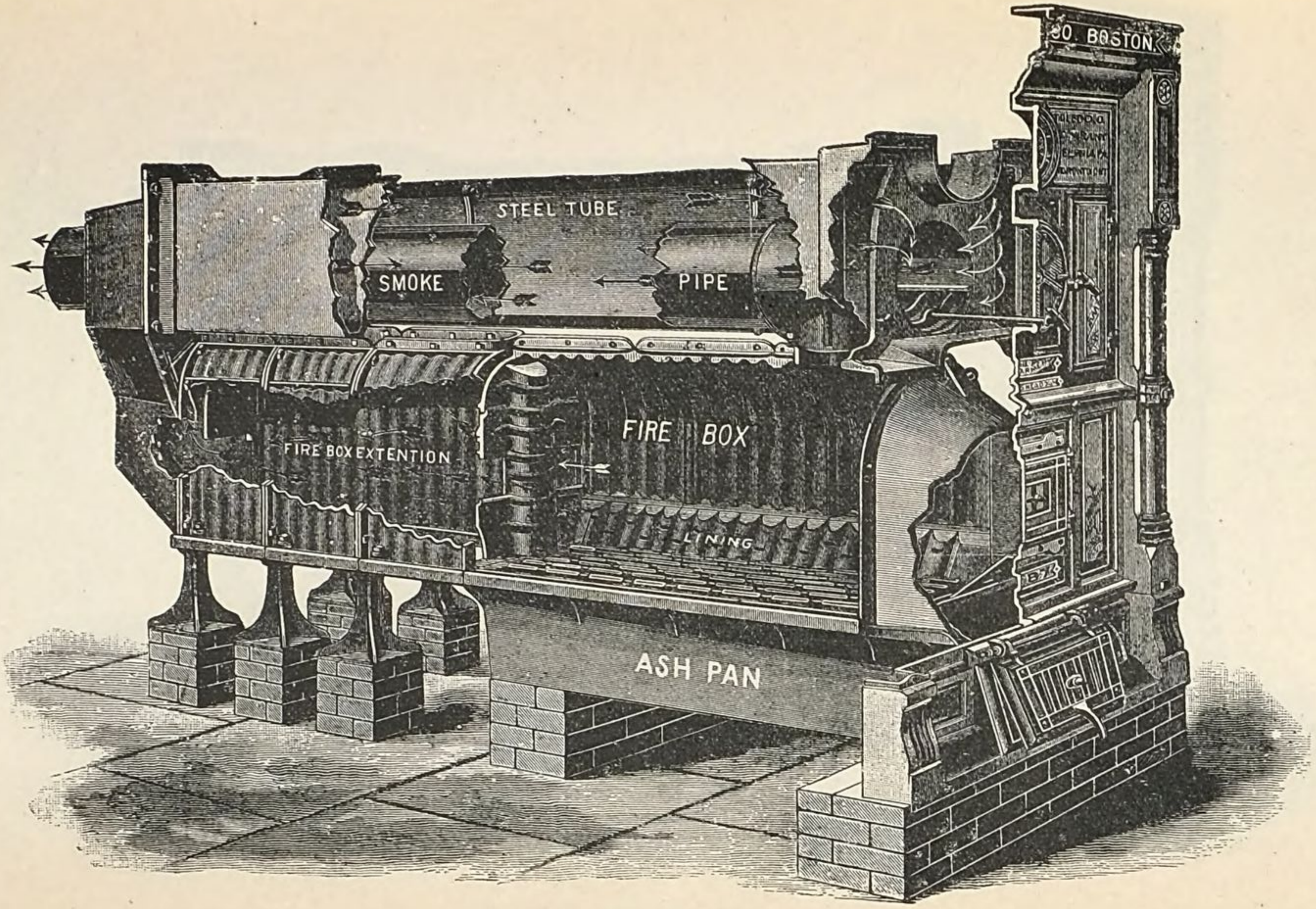


Fig. 67.—Interior view of air-warmer.

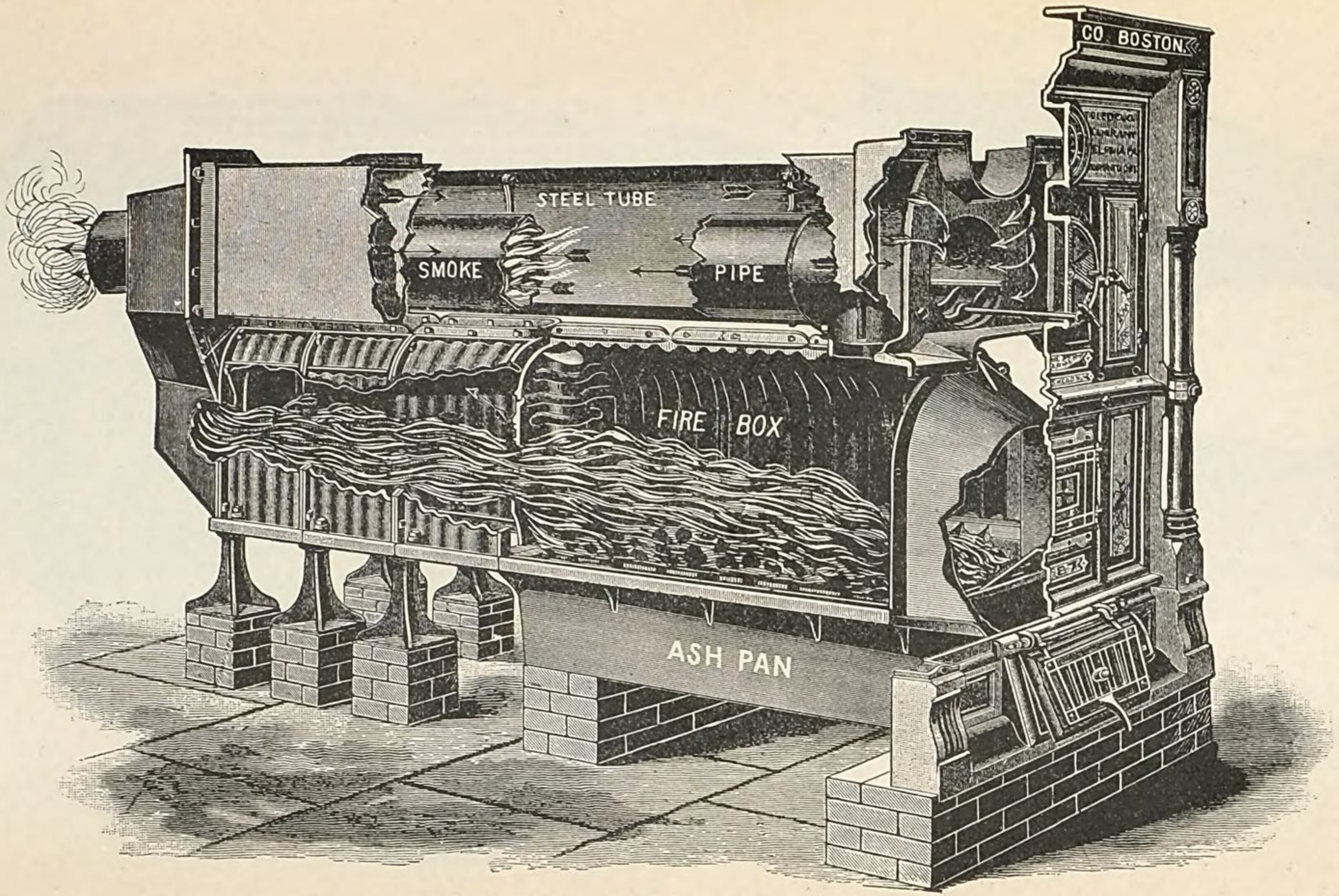


FIG. 68.—Interior view of air-warmer, showing fire.

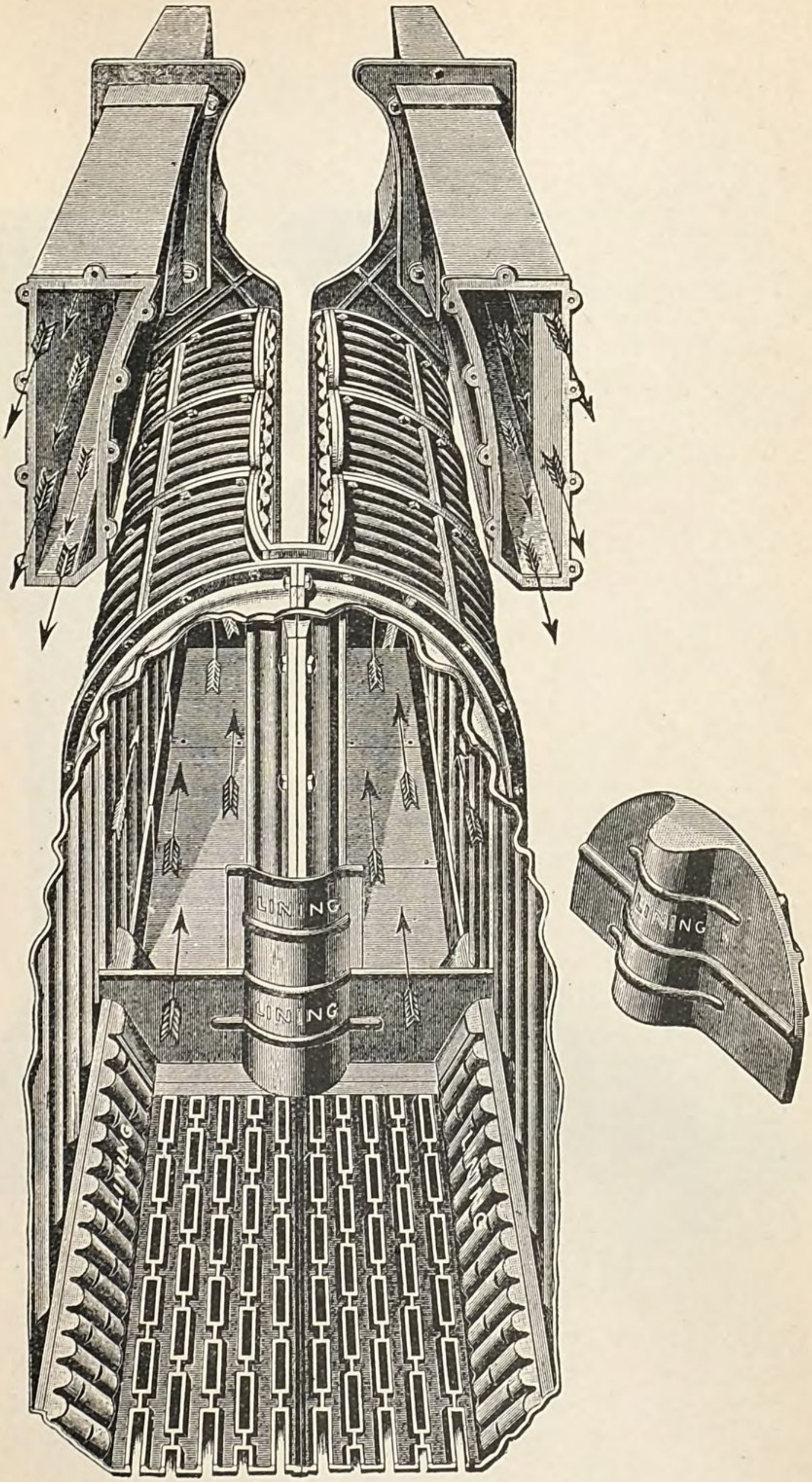


FIG. 69.—View of air-warmer with front portion cut away, showing interior of fire box, grate, linings, rear extension, etc. [The air circulates around the warmer, up the center of the rear extension, and around the three smoke flues.—A. P. M—.]

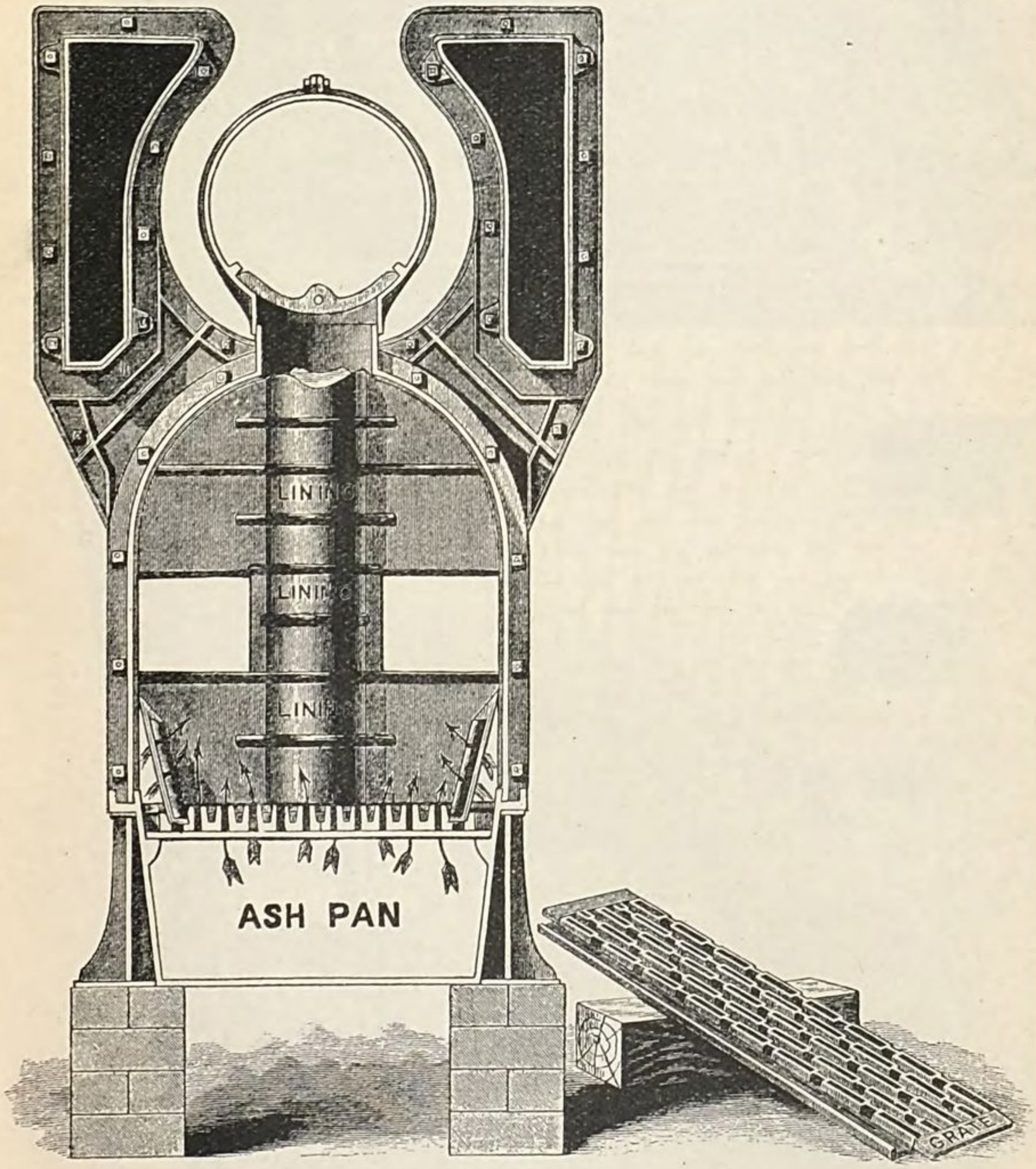


FIG. 70.—Sectional view of air-warmer, through steel flues, smoke pipe, fire box, ash pan, and patent grate.

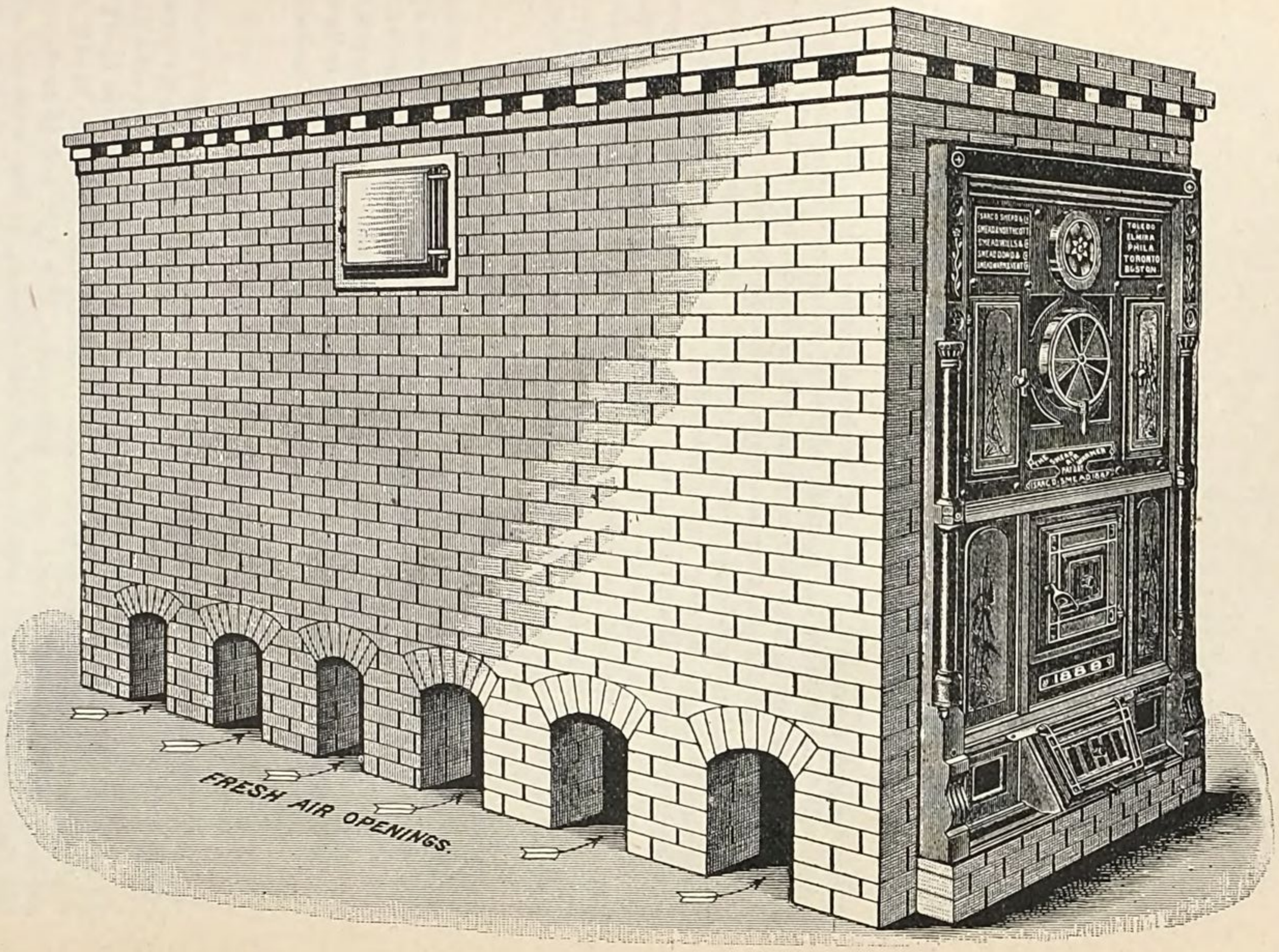


Fig. 71.—The air-warmer, with brick case.

APPENDIX I.

A SYSTEM OF VENTILATION FOR SCHOOLHOUSES HEATED BY STOVES AS APPROVED BY THE MASSACHUSETTS STATE INSPECTION DEPARTMENT OF FACTORIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

In the enforcement of chapter 149, acts of 1888, "An act to cause proper sanitary provisions and proper ventilation in public buildings and schoolhouses," throughout the State, I find by the reports of the inspectors that most of the schoolrooms outside of our large cities are heated by stoves and that any special system requiring heated flues is not applicable. To arrive at some conclusion as to what system should be recommended for this class of schoolrooms has been the subject of careful consideration, and it has been found that the best means thus far devised for ventilating rooms heated by stoves, that approximates a good system of ventilation, is the "jacketed" stove. By the courtesy of the secretary of the State board of health I am enabled to give a description of the system adopted at the Red Rock street schoolhouse, Lynn, and to copy a portion of the report made by Dr. J. G. Pinkham.

USE OF JACKETED STOVES.

It may be taken for granted that it is impossible to supply schoolrooms with the large amount of fresh air required for proper ventilation and at the same time to keep up the temperature, unless provision is made for warming the air before or during its introduction. To accomplish this economically with the class of rooms under consideration, the jacketed stove, or some form of heater arranged on the same principle, seems to be the only available device.

RED ROCK STREET SCHOOLHOUSE, LYNN.

This is a brick building of good construction and in a healthy locality. The ventilating apparatus was put into it during the summer of 1886, and the description which follows is from the report of the committee on sanitation for that year:

"There are in each room two large stoves (Barstow's Puritan, No. 18), one on each side of the room, near the front. Each stove is incased in a galvanized-iron jacket about 6½ feet high with a spreading base. Air is admitted to the space between the stove and its jacket by an air-box running through the side wall, the opening for each stove having a sectional area of 4½ square feet, being large enough for the whole air supply of the room. In cool weather one stove in each room is used; in cold weather both stoves.

"There are two extraction flues, built in one stack, at the rear of the building, one with a sectional area of 5.2 square feet for the upper room and one with a sectional area of 4.1 square feet for the lower room. They are of brick, and in an inner corner of each is a fire-clay smoke pipe connecting with the stove pipes. These smoke pipes end at the level of the chimney top, and the whole is covered with an iron cap like an Emerson ventilator, but rectangular. For heating the flues one of

D. W. Cushing's Ring Cylinder stoves is set into the *with*, or partition between the flues, projecting into each. The flues are enlarged opposite the stove to compensate for the obstruction of its bulk. As the cellar does not extend under the rear of the building the flues end at the floor level of the lower room. The openings from the rooms into the extraction flues are made at this level from the lower room directly through the wall, and from the upper room by means of a 30-inch tin pipe running down beside the stack from the upper floor. The flue-heating stove is set about 3 feet above the lower floor, and access to it is had through an iron door opening into the schoolroom. Most of the air withdrawn from the rooms goes through large openings close to the stack; the remainder (15 or 20 per cent.) is drawn through ducts under the back platform, and thence into the extraction flues. The total area of outlet openings from each room is about equal to the sectional area of its extraction flue. All outlet openings are covered with wire netting of about 1-inch mesh. Inlets on outside of building are protected by boxing and fine netting."

The illustrations which follow will make this description plain. All dimensions are given in the floor plan and sections. The capacity of the lower room is 10,700 cubic feet, that of the upper 12,040 cubic feet, allowance being made for chimney, platforms, stoves, and jackets, but none for furniture or persons. The air space per scholar, using the average attendance during the winter term of 1886 as the basis of calculation, is for the lower room 194 cubic feet, for the upper room 240 cubic feet. The actual air space enjoyed by each pupil in any school varies, of course, from time to time with the number in attendance. The average age of the pupils in the lower room is 7 years 9 months; in the upper room, 9 years 6 months. The results at this schoolhouse have been most excellent. There was no difficulty in managing the apparatus after its working was fully understood.

Visitors to the school note the apparent purity of the air and the teachers bear similar testimony.

Measurements of the outflowing air have been made at various times. These show an average for the lower room of 108,510 cubic feet per hour, or about 2,100 cubic feet to each pupil; for the upper room 84,664 cubic feet, or about 1,900 cubic feet to each pupil. In making these estimates the cubic contents of the rooms were added to the outflow, and the average attendance of the pupils employed as a factor.

It is probable that in mild weather these figures would be somewhat reduced. They might be considerably reduced and still leave quite a liberal supply for pupils of the ages specified if the commonly received views as to the amount required are correct. It is intended that the fire shall be kept burning in the flue-heating stove at all times except in warm weather. In this way the air supply may be kept up when the jacketed stoves are not in use.

The air analyses have very uniformly shown good results.

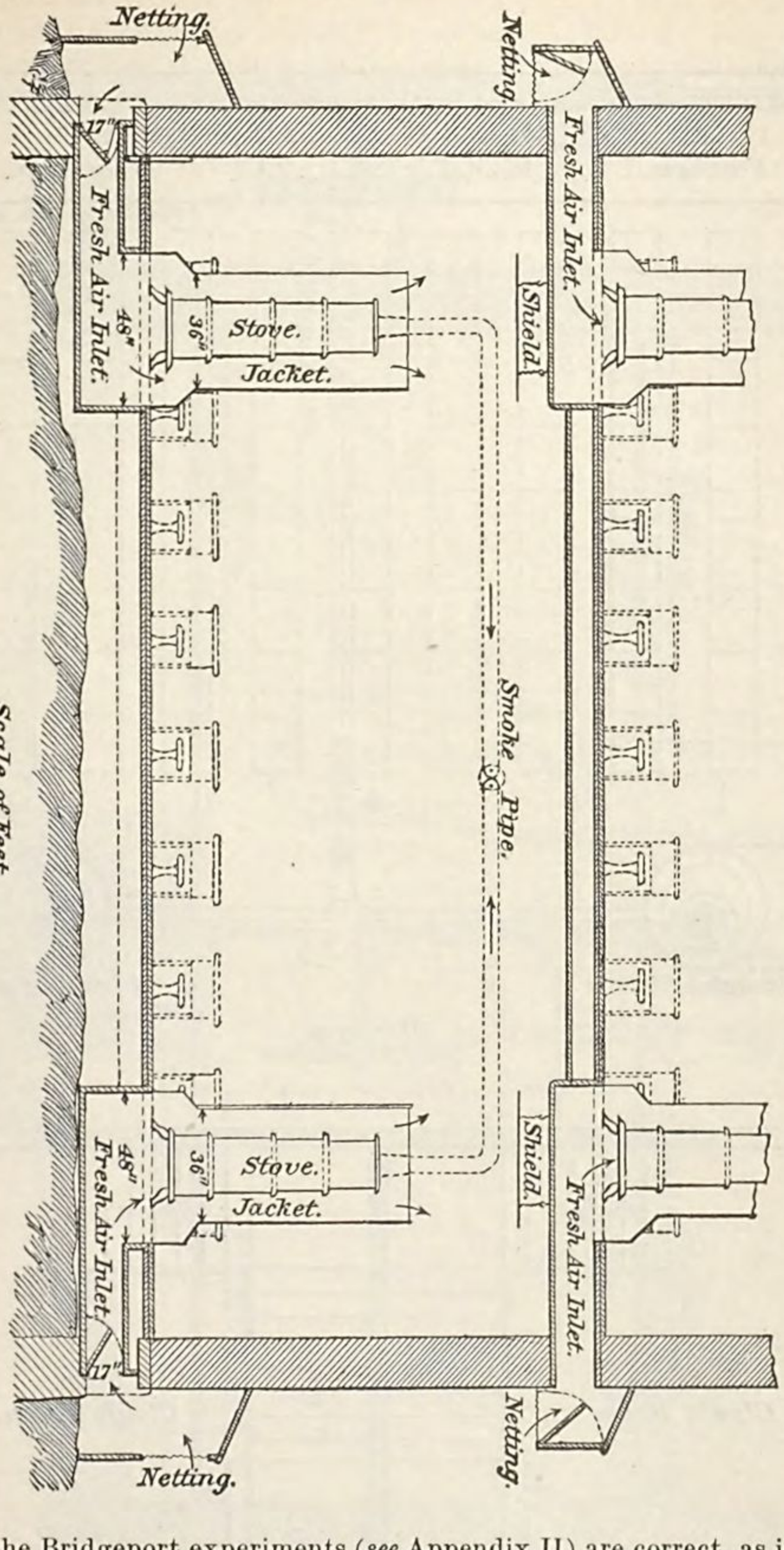


FIG. I.—Red Rock Street Schoolhouse. (Section through heating stoves and fresh-air inlets.)

NOTE.—If the Bridgeport experiments (*see* Appendix II) are correct, as is believed, a more complete change of air in this room would be secured by placing the stoves at the same end of the room as the chimney. The unsightly stovepipe would be avoided, and its dripping, its rusting, and its frequent removal would be saved. The heat from this long pipe would be lost to the room, of course, but it would be utilized in the ventilating flue, and thus save the extra fire in the chimney stove part of the time. With the ventilating chimney at the rear of the front platform, the stove in the flues could be fed from the landing of the stairs, and additional windows could be paced in the rear wall. In this plan there should be more windows at the left of the pupils. Those at their right should generally have the blinds closed.—[A. P. M.]

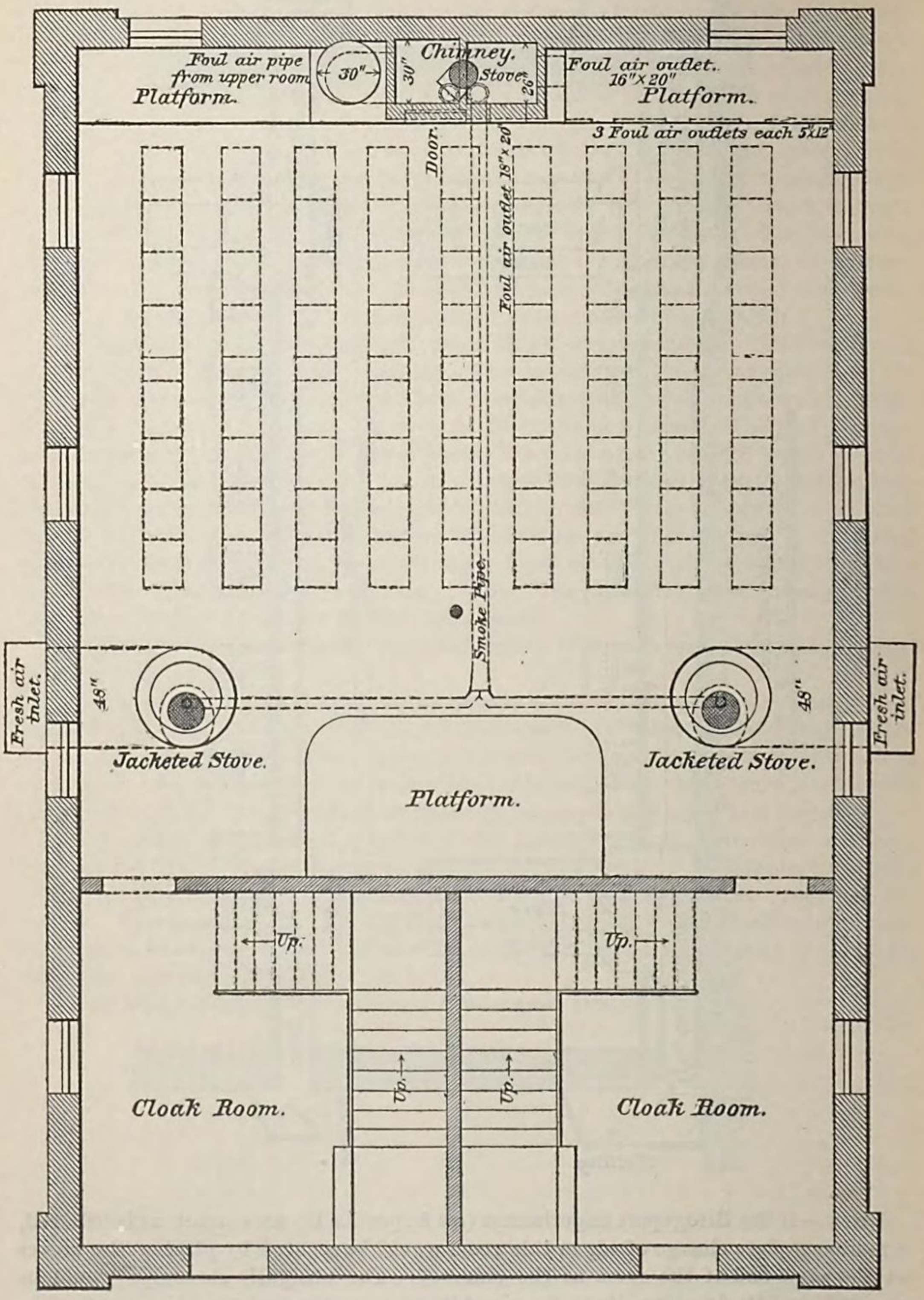


FIG. 2.—Red Rock Street Schoolhouse. (Lower room; front plan.)

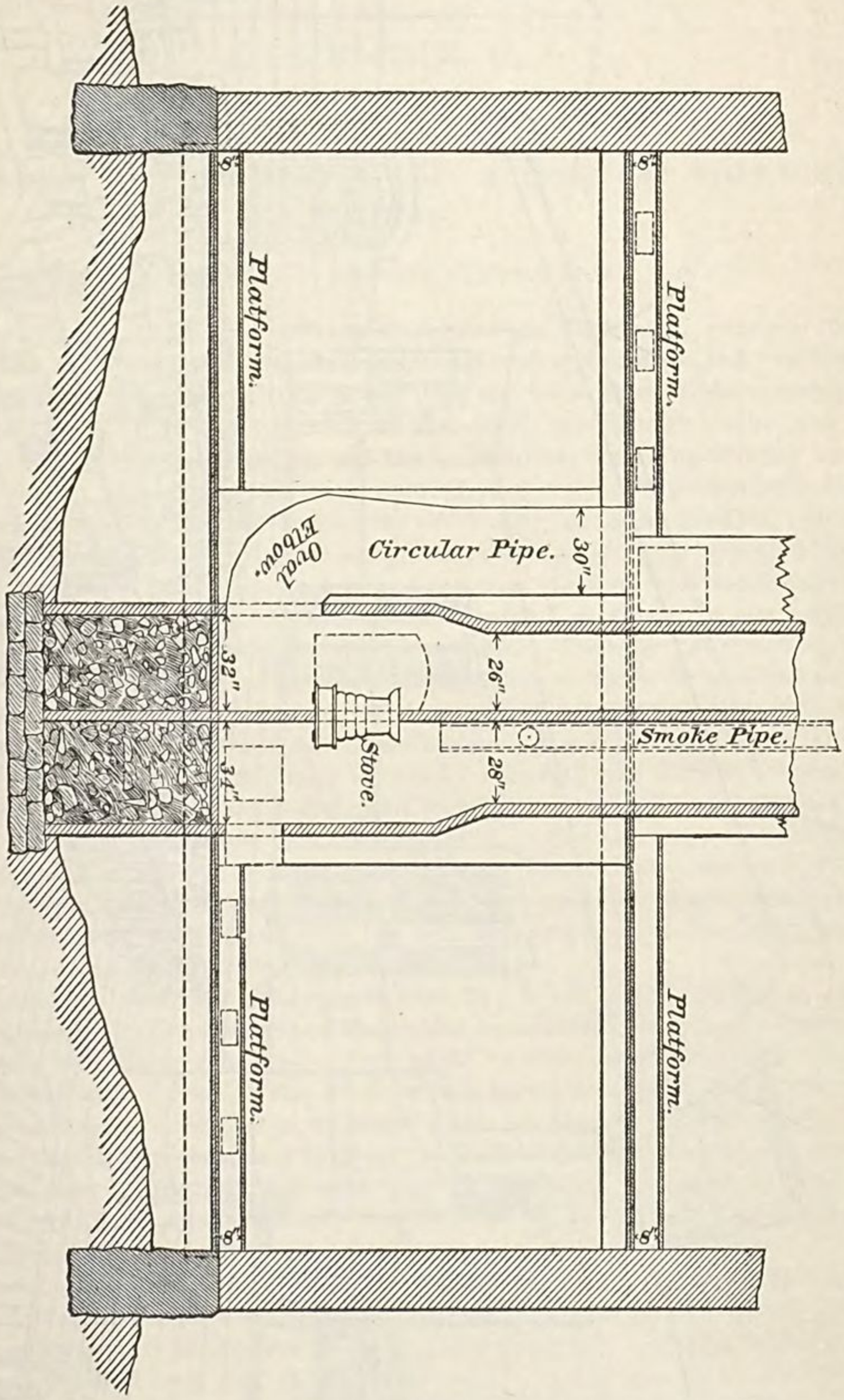


FIG. 3.—Red Rock Street Schoolhouse. (Section through chimney on line parallel to rear wall.)

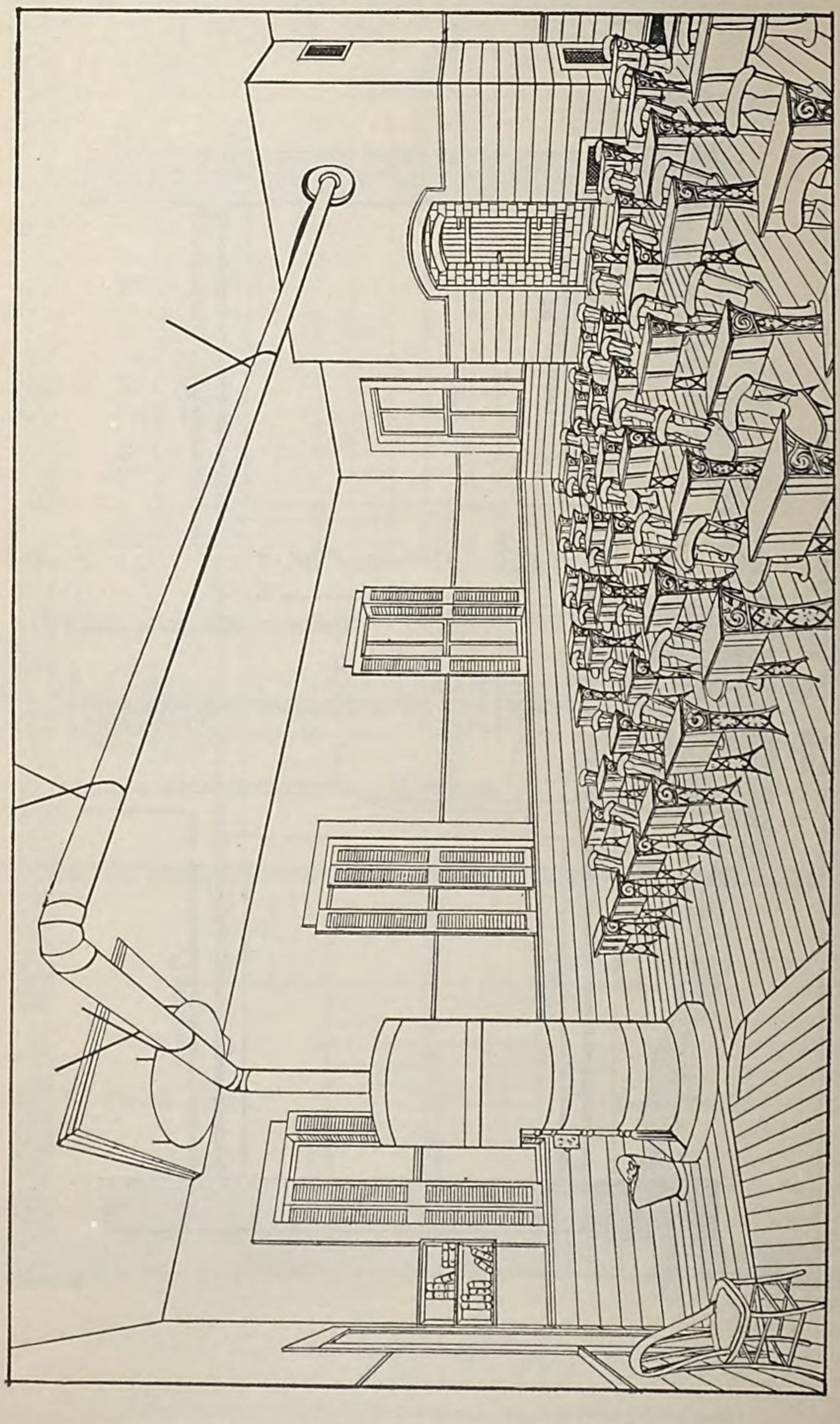


FIG. 4.—Red Rock Street School. (Lower room, showing one stove. See note, p. 69.)

APPENDIX II.

THE HYGIENIC CONSTRUCTION OF THE BRIDGEPORT HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING.

By Warren R. Briggs, Architect, Bridgeport, Conn.*

In no department of public or private works is there such vital necessity for a perfect system of hygiene as in the planning, construction, drainage, and ventilation of our school buildings. At no time in our lives are we so susceptible to disease as in our school days. The rapid growth of the child, the mental strain that our forcing system of education requires, and the bad sanitary condition of many homes, all tend to weaken the constitution at this period, and render it particularly liable to the contraction of disease. The necessity of abating, as far as possible, and ultimately exterminating, what is known as preventable disease, has become of paramount importance. The alarming spread of malarial diseases and malignant epidemics among children in various parts of the country I attribute, in the majority of cases, to criminal carelessness in sanitary matters. Miserable construction, poor sewerage, bad plumbing, and no system of ventilation, combine to produce among the poor classes hotbeds for the nursing of the germs of pestilential disease that are then conveyed by the children to our schoolhouses. Much has been accomplished by our State and local boards of health to remedy this evil, but there still remains a vast amount of work to be done. Stringent legislation is needed in all matters pertaining to building, and proper officers appointed by the Governor to enforce the laws are required in all the larger cities of our State. When this is done we may hope to see the erection of the miserable shams, that greedy speculators and unscrupulous landlords now burden us with, stopped. So long as they enjoy the license at present allowed them, we can hope for no improvement.

The schoolhouse, where the child spends from four to six hours each day, demands our direct attention. The majority of the pupils in our public schools come from the poorer classes, and are, as a rule, none too cleanly in their personal habits. Coming from homes which have none of the luxuries and barely the necessities of life, they are in no condition to be subjected to either excessive heat or extreme cold. Foul air and poor ventilation they have in plenty at their homes, and we should endeavor in the schoolroom to supply them with pure air, uniform temperature, plenty of sunlight, cheerfulness, refinement, and comfort; our buildings should be so planned as to combine all these requirements.

Dr. Lincoln, in his admirable paper recently published in Buck's Hygiene, has plainly told us what a school building should be, and the writer has endeavored, as far as lay in his power, to produce a building that shall be a model of its kind. He has not only labored long and faithfully himself, but has consulted the leading experts of the country in regard to the heating, ventilation, and general sanitary arrangements of the building, and has always received from them their hearty approval, coupled with the remark: "We have frequently called the attention of the public in our articles to what a building should be, and we are glad to see at last a building planned in accordance with our views."

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* Reprinted by courtesy of the author and the State Board of Health.

In all the writer's efforts he has been most ably seconded by the board of education of this city, and more especially by the members of the board who comprise the building committee. They are, to a man, whole-souled, enlightened, Christian gentlemen, who have the welfare of the public in view, and although they have been severely criticised and wrongfully assailed, they have unflinchingly put their shoulders to the wheel, and worked with a zeal that can not be too highly commended to secure for the city a building that can be pointed to with pride when finished.

The site of the new building is admirable. Situated almost in the geographical center of the city, in one of its best localities, far removed from all noise, dust, or odors arising from factories, stables, or the like, being completely isolated on all sides, having no large buildings or trees to shadow it, and standing within a few feet of the highest ground within the city limits, it presents natural advantages that have never been surpassed, and seldom equaled. The lot has an actual elevation of 61 feet above the average high water in the harbor. It has a frontage on two streets of 200 feet, and an average depth of 256 feet, the lot running from street to street. Not only are great advantages obtained by this frontage in ease of access to the building, but thus are secured unexceptional facilities for the disposal of sewage, there being a 12-inch main running down the hill in the center of both streets. In these streets the fall is very rapid, between 4 and 6 feet in every hundred.

The principal front (there is no rear) of the building faces Congress street, which, running nearly east and west, gives it a southwesterly exposure. This arrangement secures in every room in the building, during a portion of the day, *sunlight* in abundant quantities.

The building is designed to be constructed of brick, with local stone foundations and underpinnings, brownstone caps, sills and trimmings, exterior steps to be of granite, and roofs of slate. It will consist of three stories, viz, the ground floor, first story and second story. It contains a total of fourteen school and recitation rooms, a chemical laboratory, reception room, office, library, janitor's room, work and boiler room, besides the water-closets.

The height of all rooms in the building, with the exception of the high school room, is 13 feet, the high school room having a height of 28 feet in the center, and 21 feet on the sides.

The writer does not consider it necessary to go into a detailed explanation of each floor plan, but will simply call attention to some of the novel features and general construction of the building. The plans themselves illustrate sufficiently the general position and arrangement of rooms and halls.

The ground floor is located two steps, or about fifteen inches, below the grade of the lot. This, under ordinary circumstances, would be considered an objection, on the plea of dampness, but the floor and side walls have been so carefully prepared that the rooms situated on this floor are expected to be the driest in the building.

In the first place, the ground itself is unusually free from dampness. Ample provision has, however, been made for the removal of all surface water by the introduction of 6-inch drain pipes, laid with open joints in trenches filled with loose stone, the stones covering the top of the pipe a few inches. These pipes run all around the building, just outside of the foundation wall, and are then carried to the manholes, where they are connected with the main sewer above the running-trap.

The ground under the floor of the schoolrooms situated on the ground floor is first cemented 2½ inches with the best Rosendale cement, and then covered with two coats of asphaltum. This asphalt is put on hot, and not only covers the entire bottom, but runs up on all outside and inside walls to the height of the copings, and is then carried across the top of all interior and exterior walls, forming an impenetrable protection against dampness. Not only are the ground floor and the walls to the height of the coping treated in this manner, but all outside walls in the building,—they are all coated to their full height and width with two coats before they are furred. This I believe to be a more perfect safeguard against dampness than the hollow wall.

STAIRCASES.

The staircases consist of four flights; two at either end of the building. While being convenient and easy of access from all parts of the building, they are yet sufficiently isolated to be free from the usual objection of noise, and are moreover absolutely fireproof. They are constructed with iron treads and risers securely fastened to stringpieces, also of iron, that are bolted directly to the brick inclosing-walls. The top surfaces of all treads are to be covered with rubber, to prevent slipping. All platforms and landings are to be formed of granite slabs 8 inches thick. The stairs are formed with two "runs" for each flight, with landings midway, this being done to secure an easy ascent. The stairs are all 5 feet wide; all landings, 5 by 11 feet; risers, 7½ inches; treads, 11 inches; they are well lighted at all points by ample windows placed on each landing. An iron hand rail, bolted to the walls, runs around on all sides at a suitable height. There is no wood finish of any kind, with the exception of door and window casings, in the staircase halls. The side walls are all of face brick laid in black mortar with struck joints. These walls, when hard, are to be treated with a coat of liquid filler, and then varnished in two coats, thus forming a perfectly hard surface not easily marred or soiled.

HAT AND CLOAK ROOMS.

In all our school buildings of the present day, the hat and cloak rooms have been more or less objectionable, especially in wet weather. Children coming in with wet garments hang them in narrow rooms, poorly heated and lighted, and usually unventilated, where they are allowed to steam in a close and unwholesome atmosphere during the session, and at its close are put on by the child in a worse condition than when taken off. An attempt has been made to remedy this evil in the construction of this building. In the main halls, which are spacious, and which are to be heated and ventilated in the same manner as the schoolrooms, have been placed the hat and cloak rooms—two for each schoolroom. These rooms instead of being lathed and plastered in the usual manner are simply partitions of ash 8 feet high, entirely open at the top, and so arranged that only the supporting-posts run down to the floor. The portion of the partition between the posts is kept 4 inches from the floor, giving a free circulation of air throughout the rooms. Damp or uncleanly clothing hung in these rooms during the session instead of being filled with foulness arising from the confined atmosphere will become purified by the constant circulation of pure air, the impure air being disposed of through the main hall ventilators.

LIGHT.

All eminent writers on school hygiene have called attention and dwelt with much stress upon the importance of abundant light properly distributed in our school rooms. That the light should come from the left side and be introduced at nearly right angles to the floor-line is an established rule among those versed in school matters. Upon the actual amount of glass required by each pupil authorities differ. Dr. Lincoln states that the size of the windows, taken collectively, should equal at least one-sixth of the floor space. Cohn, the German writer, requires one-fifth, or 30 inches to the foot. Some of the highest authorities require from 300 to 350 square inches of glass for each pupil. This coincides very nearly with Cohn, but Dr. Lincoln does not consider that in our schoolrooms that have a greater depth than those referred to by the above-mentioned authorities, the amount mentioned by them is enough.

In the Bridgeport schoolhouse the window-stools have all been kept 4 feet from the floor, and the window openings are carried up to within 1 foot of the ceilings. The size of the windows, taken collectively, equals, in the corner rooms, one-sixth of the floor-space, allowing 50 pupils per room, and provides 434 square inches of glass per pupil. In the middle rooms the floor-space is seven times that of the glass surface, and allowing 50 pupils per room will give to each 403 square inches of glass.

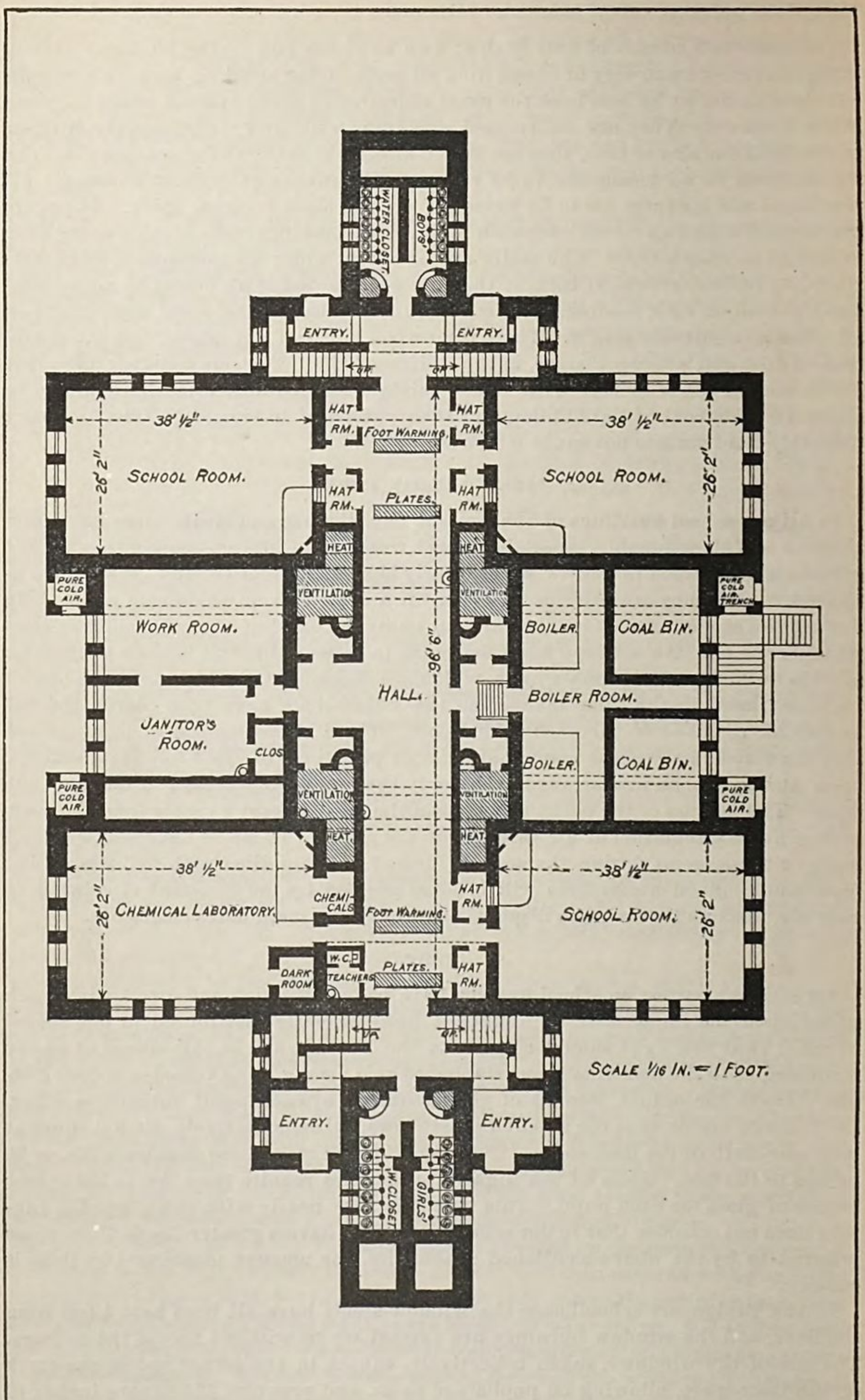

FIG. 1.—Bridgeport High School building. (Ground plan.)

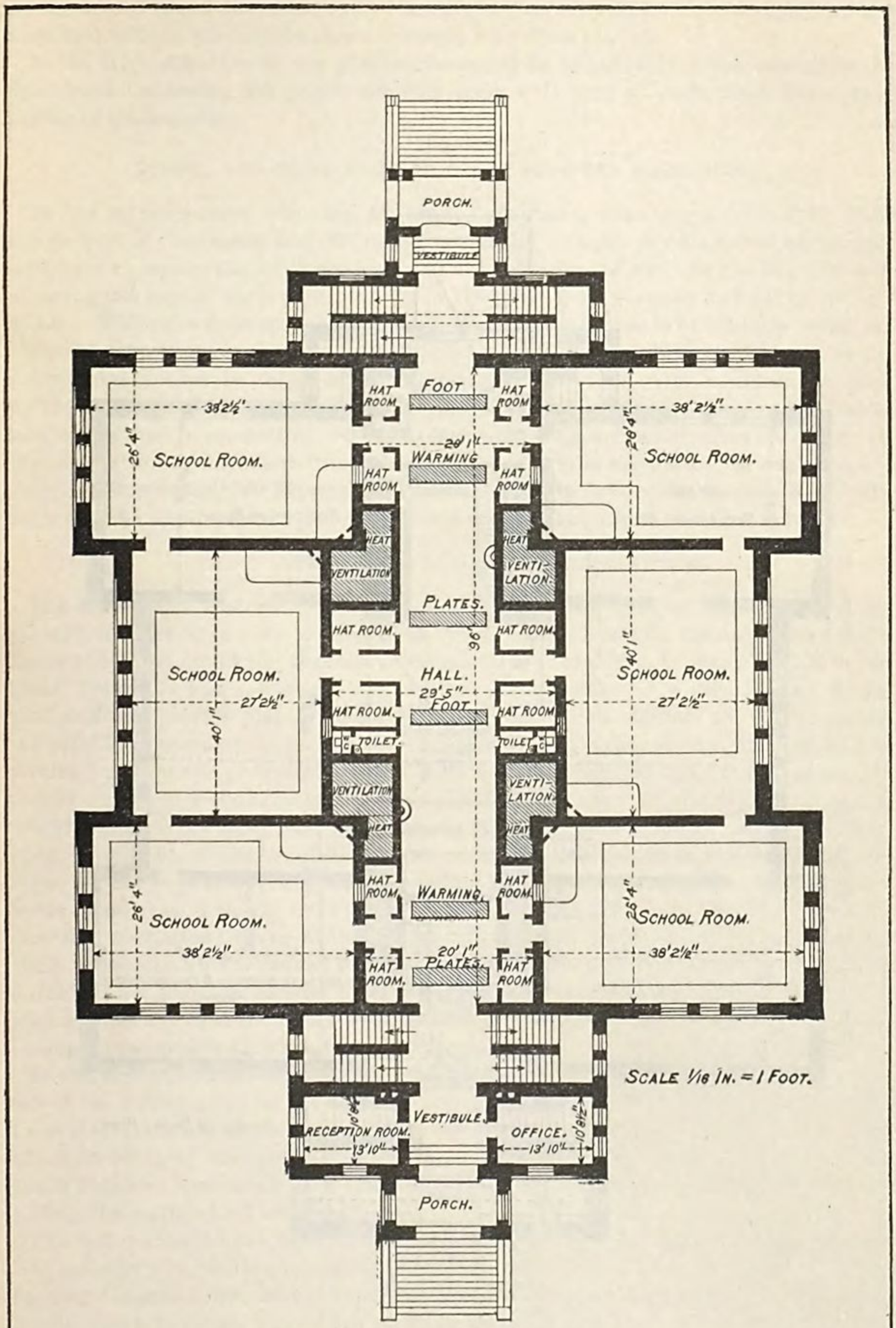

FIG. 2.—Bridgeport High School building. (First-story plan.)

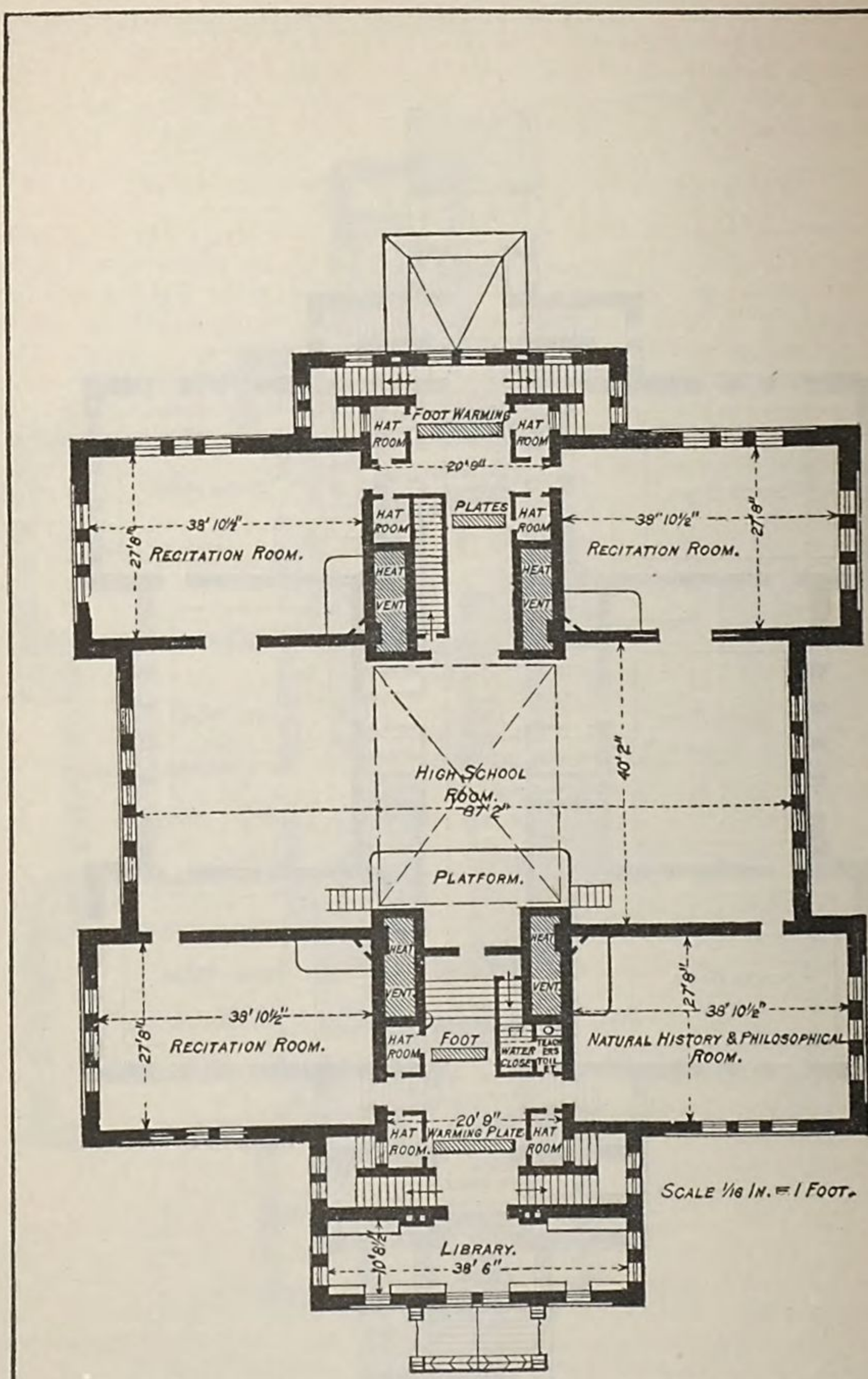

FIG. 3.—Bridgeport High School building. (Second-story plan.)

In the corner rooms the seats are so arranged that the light comes always from the back and left; in the middle rooms it comes only from the left.

In the High School room the glass surfaces, taken collectively, equal one-sixth the floor-space; allowing 200 pupils for this room will give to each pupil 384 square inches of glass surface.

FLOOR, AND CUBIC FEET OF SPACE ALLOWED EACH PUPIL.

In the corner rooms, allowing 50 pupils per room, each pupil will have 20.50 square feet of floor-space and 266 cubic feet of air. In the middle rooms each pupil will have 21 square feet of floor-space and 273 cubic feet of air. In the High School, allowing 200 pupils, each pupil will have 17 square feet of space and 441 cubic feet of air. While the floor-space in the High school room is somewhat smaller than the highest authorities require, the cubic contents are largely in excess of the most exacting, and it must be taken into consideration that this room is seldom occupied by the entire number of pupils for more than a few moments at a time, as the recitation rooms used in connection with it are, during the school session, in constant use. It should also be remembered that the number of pupils calculated for each room is their extreme capacity. It is to be hoped that no teacher will be burdened with more than 44 pupils, although I have based my estimations on a larger number.

THE WATER-CLOSETS AND THEIR CONSTRUCTION.

The demands of modern civilization require that we provide, either within our school buildings or in close proximity to them, water-closets for the use of the pupils. There can be no doubt but that much harm is done to children, in many schools in our State, from the bad sewerage and careless arrangement of water-closets. It has been said that privies placed under the same roof which shelters the school should not exist for a moment. I do not consider that this rule should be simply applied to privies, but that the groups of water-closets that are required in all our large schools should come under the same head; they should in no case be placed directly under schoolrooms in the basement, as contamination will surely follow sooner or later. They should be, if not wholly, at least partially isolated from the building, and those for the boys removed as far as possible from those of the girls. The teachers' water closets can, I think, with safety be placed in the building, that is, if they are carefully ventilated; these water-closets will be used understandingly and are not liable to become unwholesome, but the pupils' closets, even with the most careful watching, are liable to become foul from the habit so prevalent among children (I wish I could say that the habit was confined to children alone) of making the closet a common receptacle for all kinds of garbage.

In the Bridgeport schoolhouse the closets for the pupils have been placed at either end of the building, under the entrance steps, far removed from each other, securing a complete isolation of the sexes. They are also completely shut off from the main school building by the intervening staircase halls; by this arrangement, ease of access is obtained, combined with complete isolation, obviating the danger of contaminating the main school building.

The water-closets have been constructed with a view to having as little woodwork as is possible with the requirements of comfort. The main floor is to be of bluestone flagging 4 inches thick, laid in Portland cement; this is laid on a gentle incline to a certain point, to secure a good dip or wash from all points of the room. The side walls are of brick, treated in the same manner as has been before mentioned in the description of the entrance halls. The ceilings will be formed by the bottom of the granite slabs that are used for the floors of the vestibule, porch, and outer halls. The casings, doors, and seats for the closets comprise the entire woodwork; these are of ash and are treated to a coat of filler and then varnished in two coats. The partition between the hoppers is to be of slate 1¼ inches thick, 7 feet high by 2 feet 6 inches broad. These slate partitions are held in position by iron floor and wall pieces

and caps of the same material (see accompanying drawings). The floor upon which the hoppers stand is raised one step above the main floor of the closet (see drawing), and is also composed of bluestone flagging 4 inches thick, a hole being cut through this stone for the outlet of the hopper. The closet that is intended to be used is the Hellyer Short Artizan Hopper. This closet combines more good points, in the writer's opinion, than any at present known to him. Its chief point of excellence is its simplicity of working, and the fact that it is entirely of earthenware. There are no pans, valves, or plungers to become foul or get out of order; it is, in fact, an earthen hopper of improved shape, fed by a continuous tank to which is attached for each bowl a serving box. When the seat is occupied, by a simple device a valve is raised, and the serving box filled with water from the tank, at the same time a small stream is permitted to trickle into the hopper, wetting the sides and preventing the adhesion of excretion to the bowl. When the seat is relieved of its weight, the valve before referred to is closed, another one opened, and the contents of the serving box (some

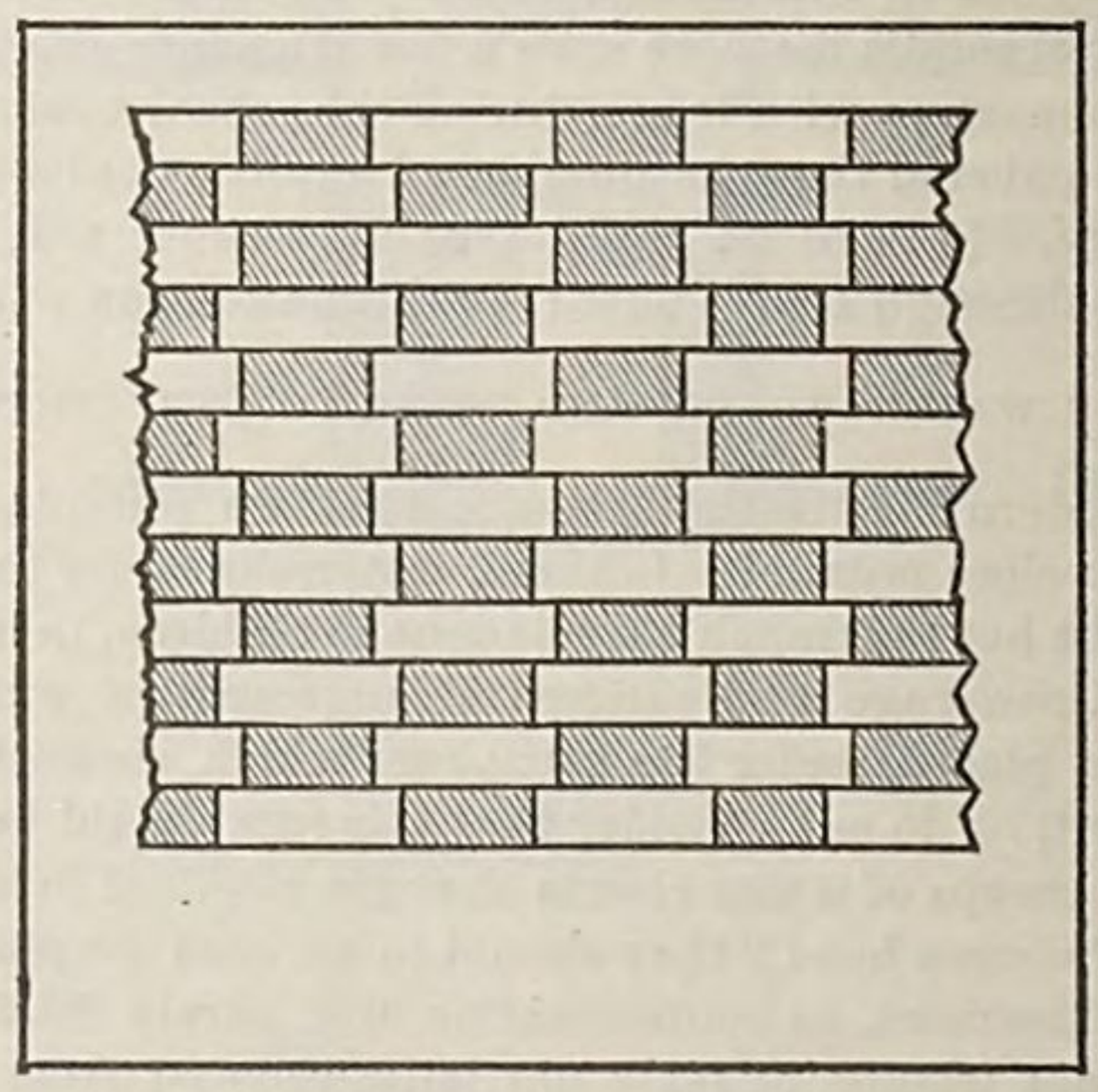

FIG. 4.—Method of laying brick around stoves in water-closets

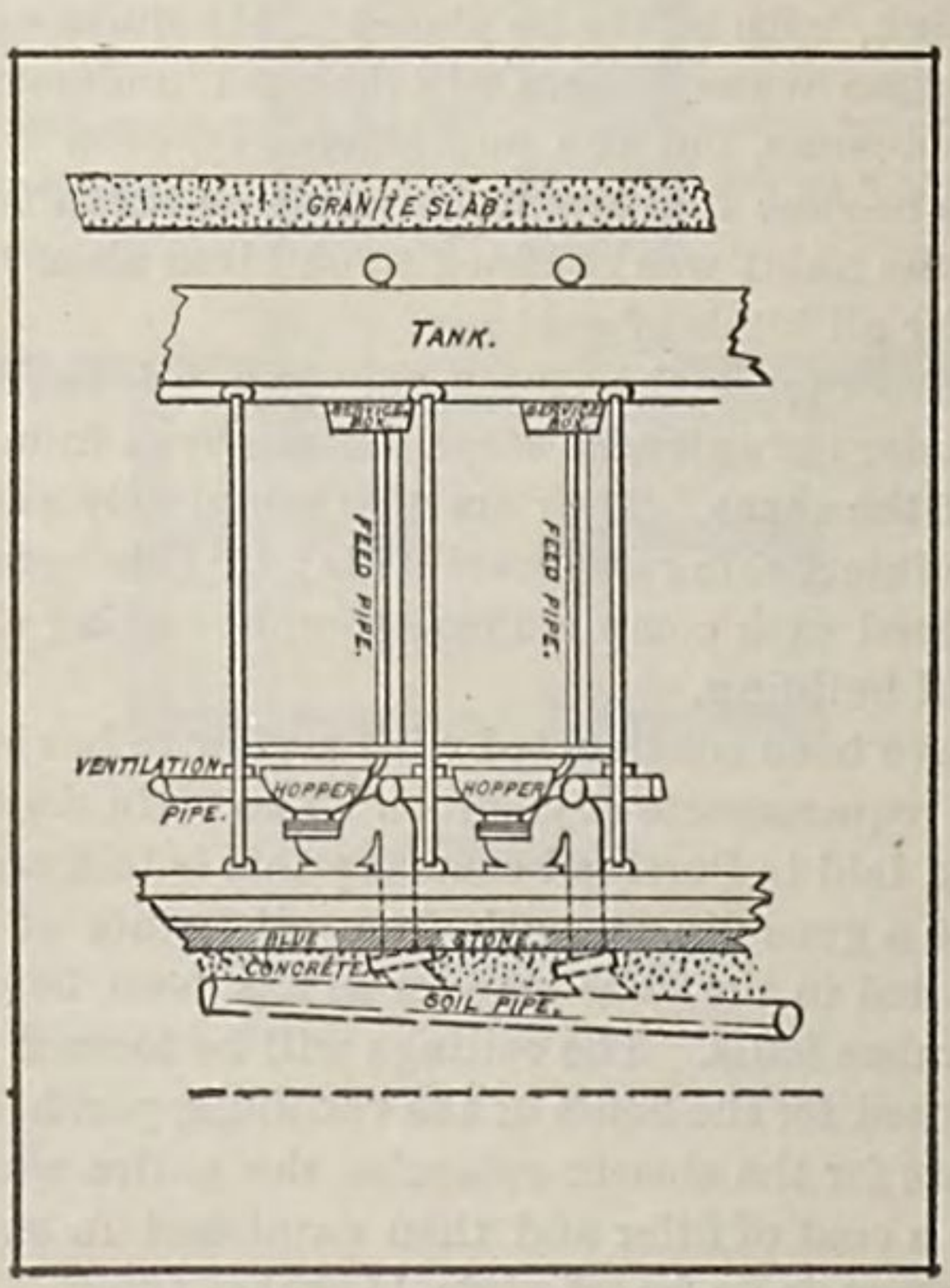

FIG. 5.—Elevation of a portion of the closets.

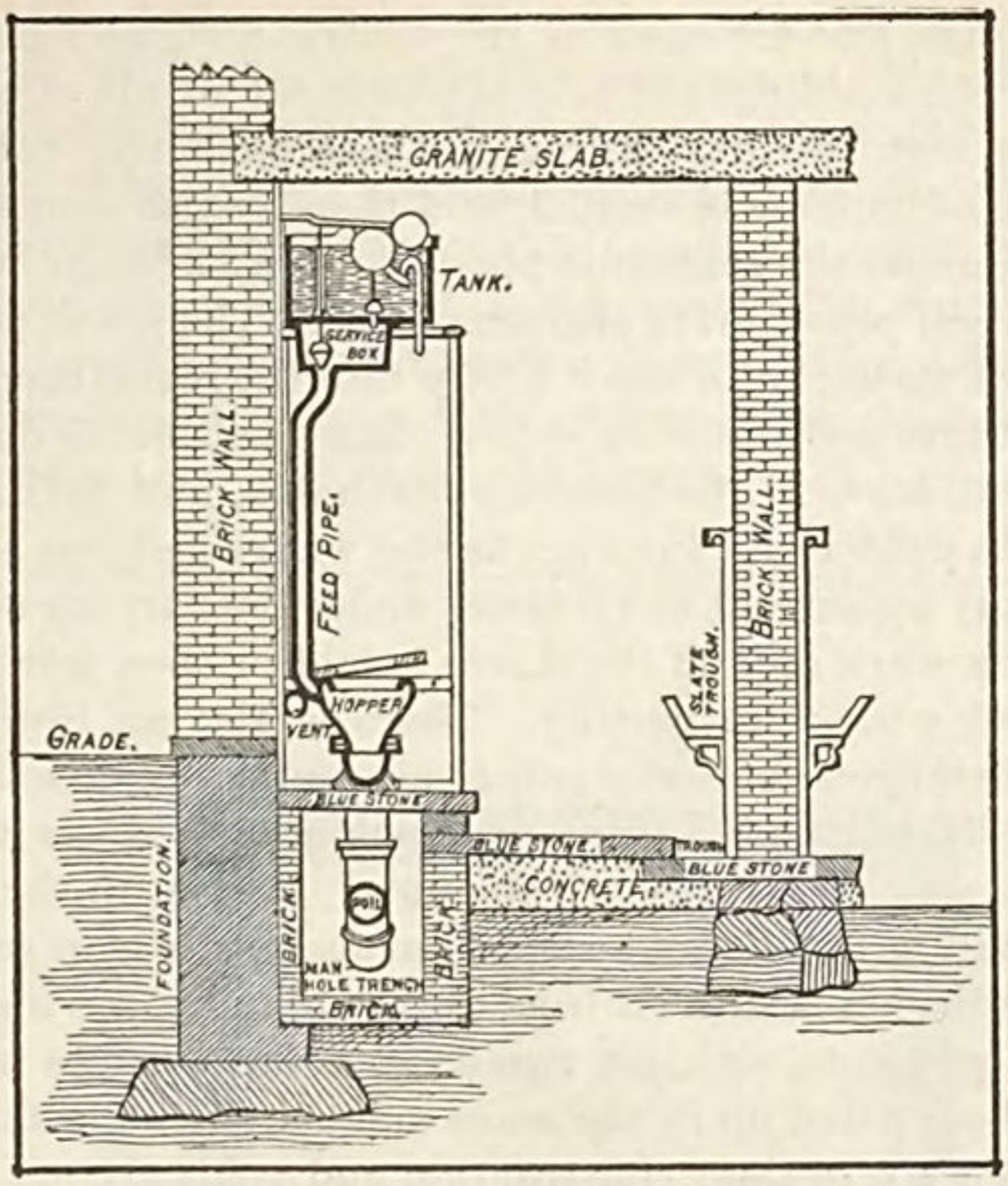

FIG. 6.—Section through water-closet.

3 gallons) suddenly discharged through a large pipe connected with the flushing rim into the bowl of the hopper, carrying all solid matter through the trap. As I have said before, these hoppers, both bowl and trap, are of white earthenware; they are to be securely bolted to the bluestone and left entirely open and exposed to view. The seat is supported by the slate partitions, on which are bolted slate cleats. The chain operating the service box and feed pipe are both inclosed in an iron pipe, so as to be completely inaccessible to the pupils.

The tank and service boxes are of iron, painted. Directly under the platform on which the hoppers stand, there is to be constructed a manhole trench, to be built of brick, coated with asphalt; the top is formed of the bluestone that the hoppers rest upon. This manhole is 2 feet broad by 3 feet 6 inches high, and is large enough to permit a man to crawl through it to inspect the pipes. This trench is to have an iron register at one end for the admission of pure air, and at the other it is connected directly with the ventilating shaft. In this trench are to run the soil pipes from the hoppers; these are to consist of 6-inch cast-iron pipes with a 4-inch Y-joint for each hopper. These pipes are calked with molten lead and then covered with two coats of asphaltum to prevent rust. By the arrangement of this trench the soil pipe and its connections are always accessible; even should a leak occur in any of its joints that was not at once discovered, the stench arising from such a cause would not enter the building but pass off through the ventilating flue. The urinals are placed along the inside division walls; they are to be constructed with slate backs and troughs put together in the most approved manner, the trough being supported by brass brackets; the back is arranged with a neat cap of slate, under which is run a water pipe perforated with small holes so as to secure the complete wetting of the entire back at all times. Underneath this trough, in the floor, there is another trough, the bottom and one side being of bluestone and the other formed by the slate back; this trough has an inclined surface and is intended to carry off all drippings or sloppings that may occur in or about the closets or urinals. At its outlet it is trapped with a deep running trap and then connected with the main drain. This arrangement will enable the janitor, at the close of each day's session, thoroughly to wash down with a hose the entire room.

Upon the inside walls of the rooms that are occupied by the closets have been

placed ventilating flues, two for each of the closets. These flues are of large size, and run up through the building, entirely independent of all other flues, to a point far above the main cornice line. Through these flues the extension of the soil pipes of each section of hoppers is carried, and there is also connected with the flues a vent pipe, running under the seats just above the trap of each hopper. Lastly, the trench in which the soil pipe runs is also connected. The lower portions of the flues, that is, those parts of them that come directly into the rooms occupied by the water-closets, are enlarged into a circular form (see plans), this being done to permit of the introduction of a small stove in the bottom of each flue, and this stove is to be kept running always, both winter and summer, as the writer believes that this is the only way to secure a steady up-current at all times under the varying conditions of the atmosphere. The brick work around the stoves is laid in open work (see sketch), and on the inside covered with wire netting. There is also an iron door provided for each flue. By this arrangement many points are gained; not only are the hoppers and soil pipes perfectly ventilated, but any stench arising in the rooms is quickly removed by the strong up-current through the flues. Again, in the winter, the stoves, two in each room, will be ample for heating purposes, while in summer, by a simple device, the direct radiation is shut off from the room and thrown entirely up the flue.

The teachers' water-closets, situated two on each floor, are to be of the same pattern as those described, fitted up in the same manner as the ordinary house closets, but with special reference to their construction and ventilation.

NOTE.—The soil pipes for the teachers' closets in the main building are laid in a trench in the same maner as described above; the main drain runs into a manhole just outside of the building, where the three lines of soil pipes (one from each section of hoppers, and one from the teachers' closets) are brought together just above a deep running trap. This manhole is covered with a bluestone flag, is carefully ventilated, and easy of access. There is also connected, just above the trap in this manhole, the rainwater drains connected with the leaders from roof, so as to secure during every rain a thorough scouring out of all the drains and their connections. The reader, by studying the accompanying plans and sketches, will be enabled readily to understand the general arrangement and working of this system.

HEAT AND VENTILATION.

It is generally admitted, on all sides, that the most practical, economical, and surest way of heating our buildings, at the present day, is steam. Granting that steam is to be our medium, it next becomes a question of how it shall be used. There are, at this writing, two methods in general use, these being known respectively as the direct and indirect systems. The direct system means the placing of radiators or circulation pipes in each and every room required to be heated. The indirect system consists in placing all the pipes or radiators in boxes in the basement. Pure, cold air is brought into these boxes, and by passing through the coils of heated steam pipes is warmed to the degree required. The heat generated in the boxes is then conveyed to the various rooms through tubes or pipes, in the same way that heat is usually conducted from our hot-air furnaces. Both systems have many strong advocates, but as far as the writer's investigations and researches have led him, he has found, among men that have simply the heating of a room in view, the direct system in favor; but among those who desire not only the actual heating, but the supplying of the room with fresh, pure air at all times, the indirect system is invariably adopted. From the personal investigations and practical experiments the writer has made from time to time, he is convinced that far better results can be obtained by the indirect method than by any now known to him. It has therefore been adopted in the new building for this city. It may be said in objection to this system that the amount of fuel required to heat a given amount of space is largely in excess of that required by the direct plan; this is in a measure true, but not to the extent supposed. Again, it has

been said that it is impossible to heat exposed rooms by the indirect plan, without an enormous apparatus. This also is a mistake, for neither an extravagant use of fuel nor a gigantic apparatus is required, if the apparatus is properly arranged and understandingly handled. The trouble has not been from the inability to produce heat, but from the extraordinary loss of heat, this being occasioned in many cases by the position of the introductory flues, and in other cases by that of the outgoing ventilating ducts. It should be our aim to utilize every particle of heat entering the room before we allow it to escape; it is certainly folly to bring in vast quantities of pure, warmed air at the floor level of a room and send it out with equal rapidity at the

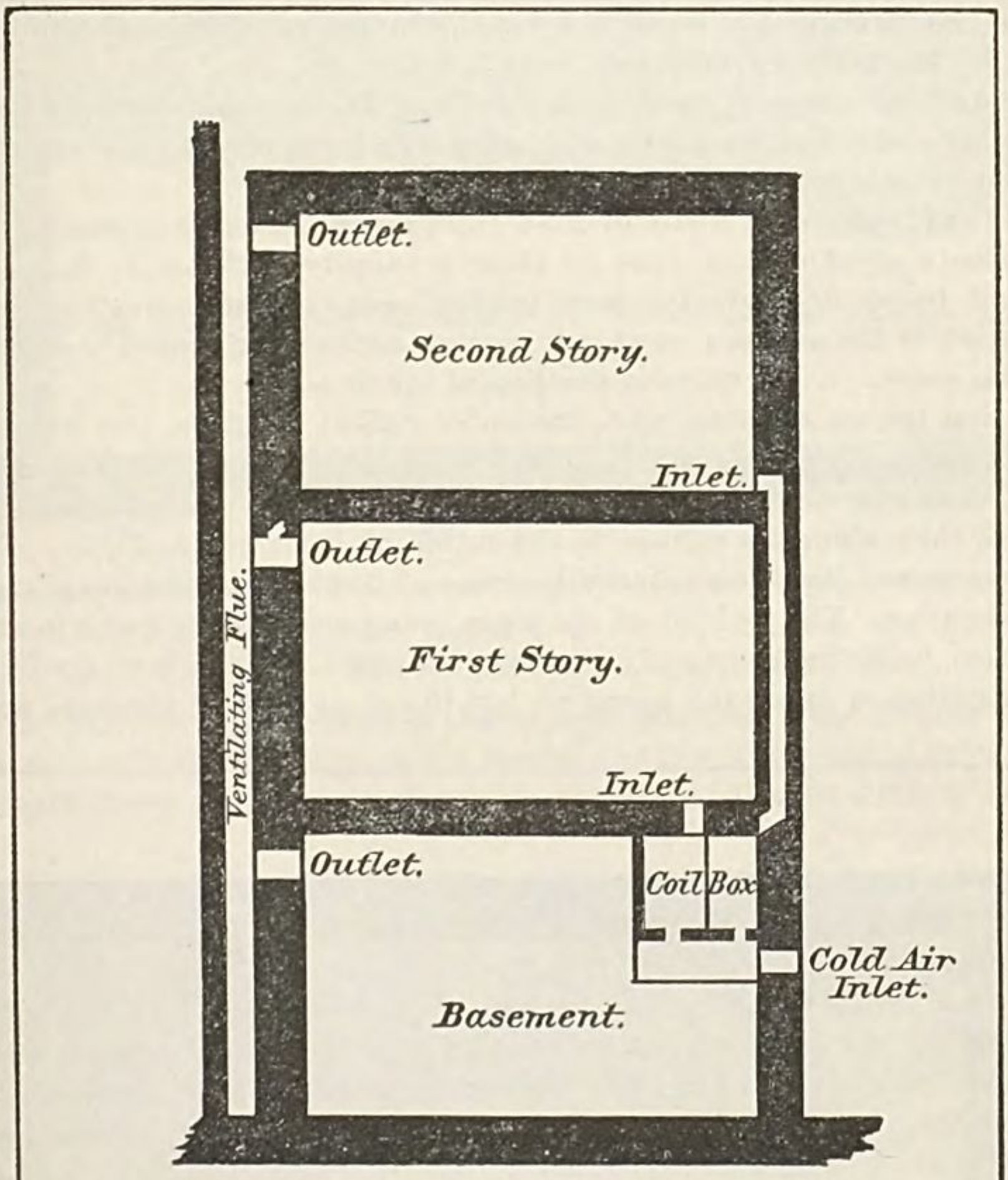

FIG. 7.

ceiling level, without having traversed the room, outside of an almost direct line drawn from the incoming to the outgoing register; yet in many cases our registers are so arranged that it is impossible to get any different results.

I have before said that there is a general unanimity of opinion among experts as to the feasibility of indirect heating, but in regard to the placing of the heating surfaces in the cellar and the position of the incoming and outgoing registers there is a wide diversity of opinion.

I shall endeavor briefly to describe some of the principal methods in common use, and the objections that I have to them, before describing the system adopted in the Bridgeport school building.

First, the placing of the coil boxes in the basement, on the outer walls under the rooms to be heated (Fig. 8), and the introduction of the warmed air at the floor and its removal at the ceiling level upon the opposite side of the room.

The objections that I have to this system are:

1. That in a building like the Bridgeport school there would have to be placed in the basement at least six separate coil-boxes for the generation of heat, arranged one under each room; that by placing these boxes in the basement rooms the rooms are rendered entirely unfit for school purposes, and their utility for playroom is greatly crippled.

2. That by placing these boxes far away from the center of the building, where the boilers are presumably located, a large amount of additional piping becomes necessary throughout the basement.

3. The boxes being placed on the outer walls of the building, there is danger of the pipes freezing; constant watching and attention is required to prevent this and to insure their proper working.

4. That the introduction ducts or flues running up the outer exposed walls of the building lose a great deal of heat by their proximity to the cold; that this loss of heat cannot be wholly obviated even by the most expensive construction; that a large addition to the actually necessary heating surface is required to overcome this loss of heat, caused by the exposed position of the flues.

Lastly, that the air entering upon the outer wall at the floor, and being removed on the inner wall at the ceiling-level, does not benefit the occupants of the room as it should. The action of the air as it enters is rapidly upward to the ceiling, where it stratifies, then along its surface to the outlet, as indicated in Fig. 8. The entering air is warm and light, and naturally rises and flows across the top of the room to the nearest outlet. The foul air of the room, being heavy with impurities, remains at the bottom, becoming constantly more contaminated. There is no doubt a certain amount of radiation or mixing going on, but the great bulk of the pure warmed air

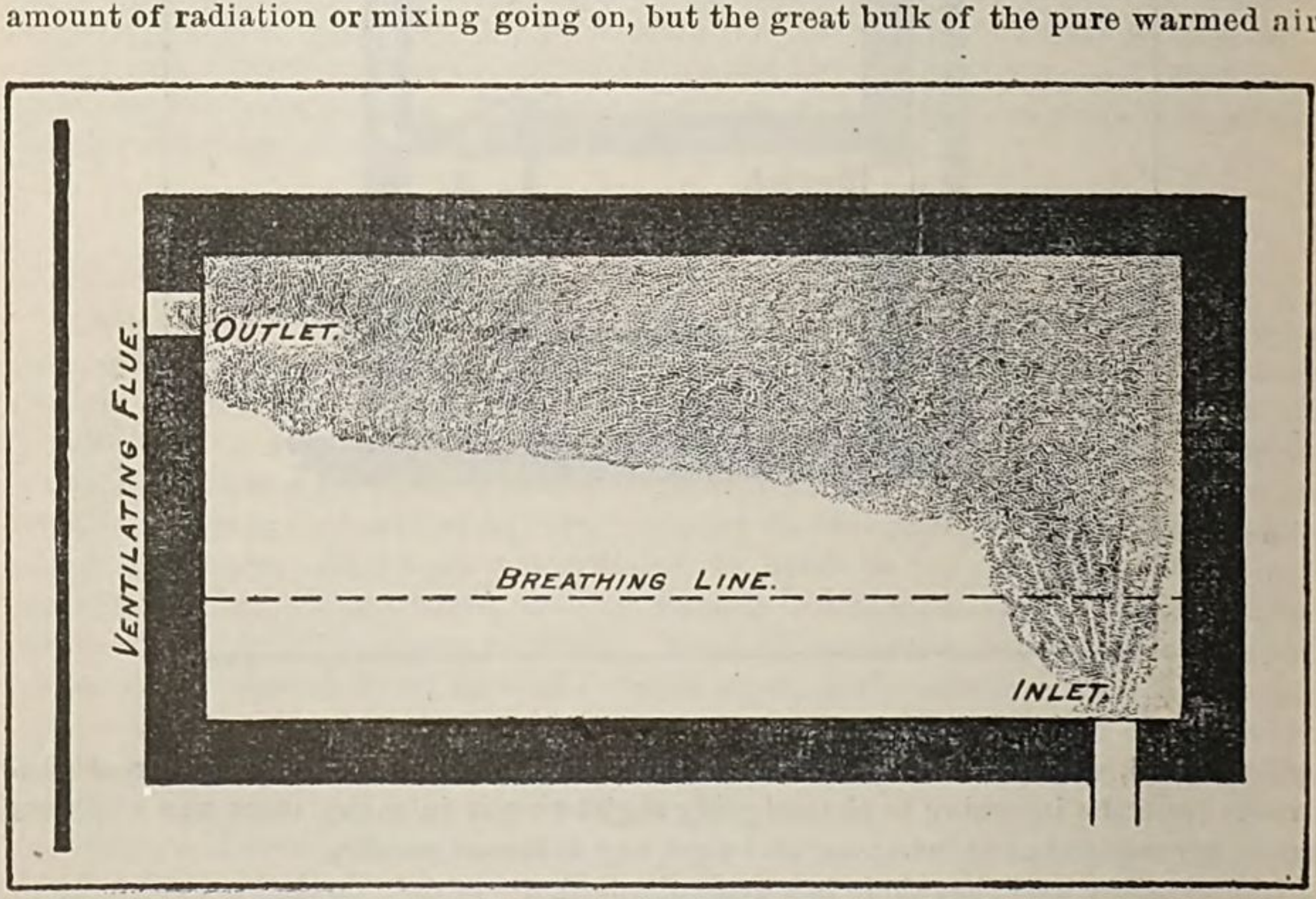

FIG. 8.

entering the room takes the short cut across it and up the ventilating duct, as shown in Fig. 8. This action of the warm air occasions, as may be readily seen, an enormous loss of heat without accomplishing the very results aimed at, the utilization of every particle of heat before it is allowed to escape, and the thorough mixing of the

pure incoming air with the air already in the room. If any one doubts the correctness of the action of air as herein described, let him fill the incoming flue with smoke that can be readily seen, and watch its course as it enters, flows upward and outward, and see where the great mass of it goes. The dotted lines on these sketches indicate the breathing point of a person sitting.

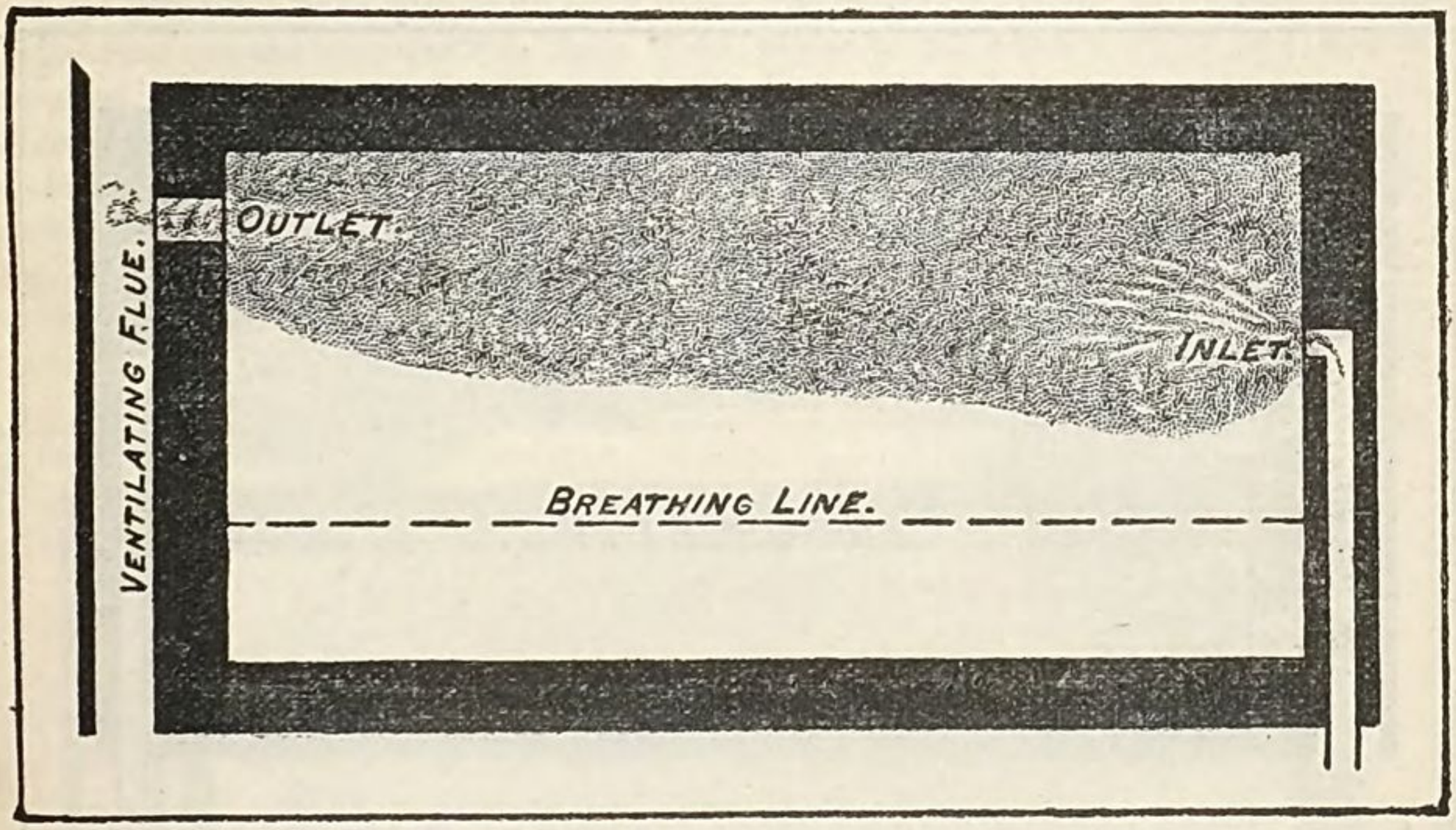

FIG. 9.

It may be well to explain that in the experiments that I have made the outlets have been at least twice as large as the inlets, and that there has always been heat in the outgoing flues to produce a strong up-current, as I believe this to be the only

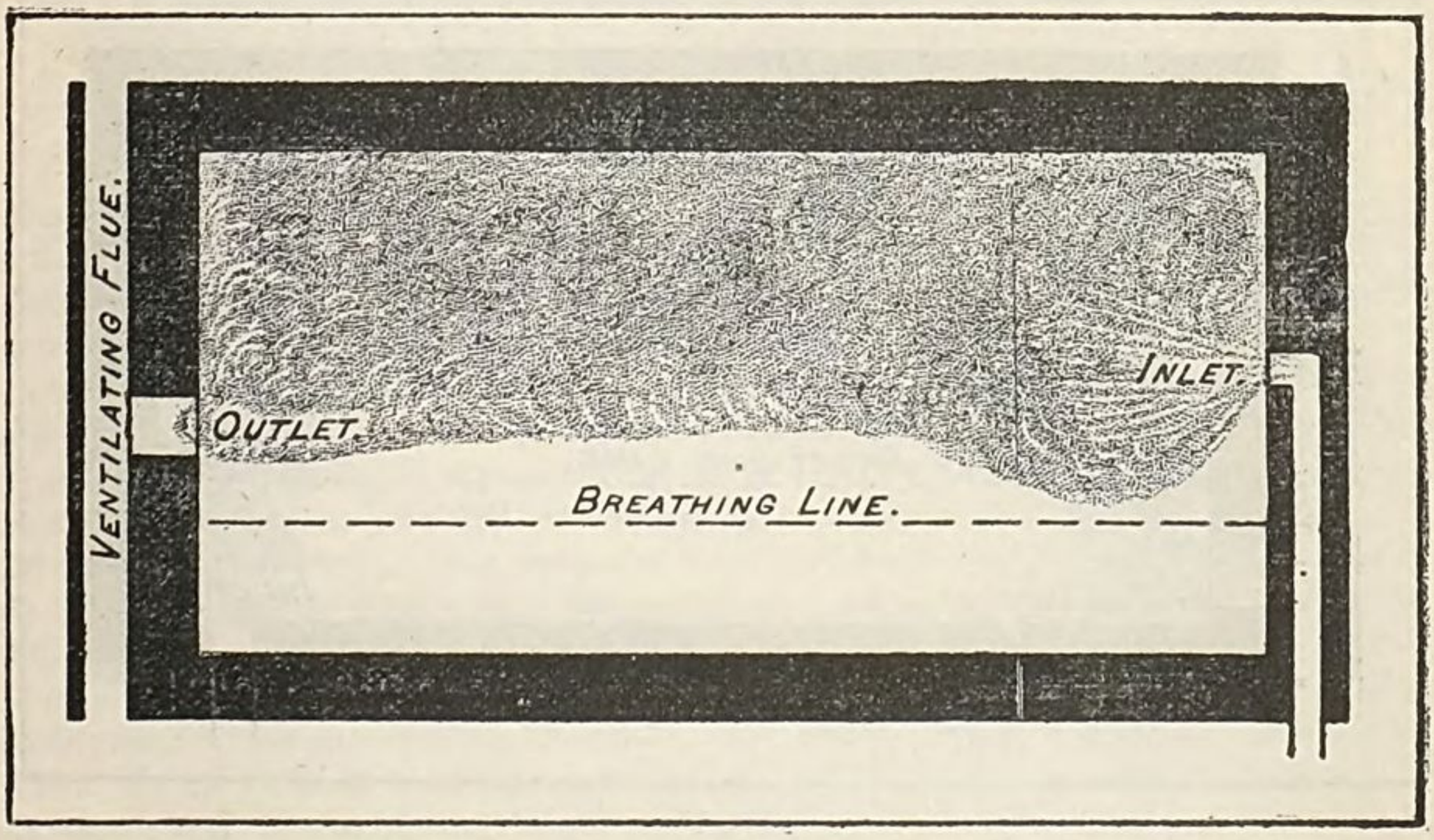

FIG. 10.

sure way to produce a constant outward flow of air. In Fig. 9 the outgoing flue is in the same position, but the incoming flue has been raised about two-thirds of the way towards the ceiling. In Fig. 10 the flues have been placed on about the same

level, but with no better results. In Fig. 11 the outgoing flue has been placed at the floor with the results shown in the sketch. In Fig. 12 both flues are at the floor-level with better results than have yet been obtained, but still far from satisfactory. I have thus tried to show the general action of incoming and outgoing currents of air by the placing of the introduction flues on the outer walls and the outlets on the inner.

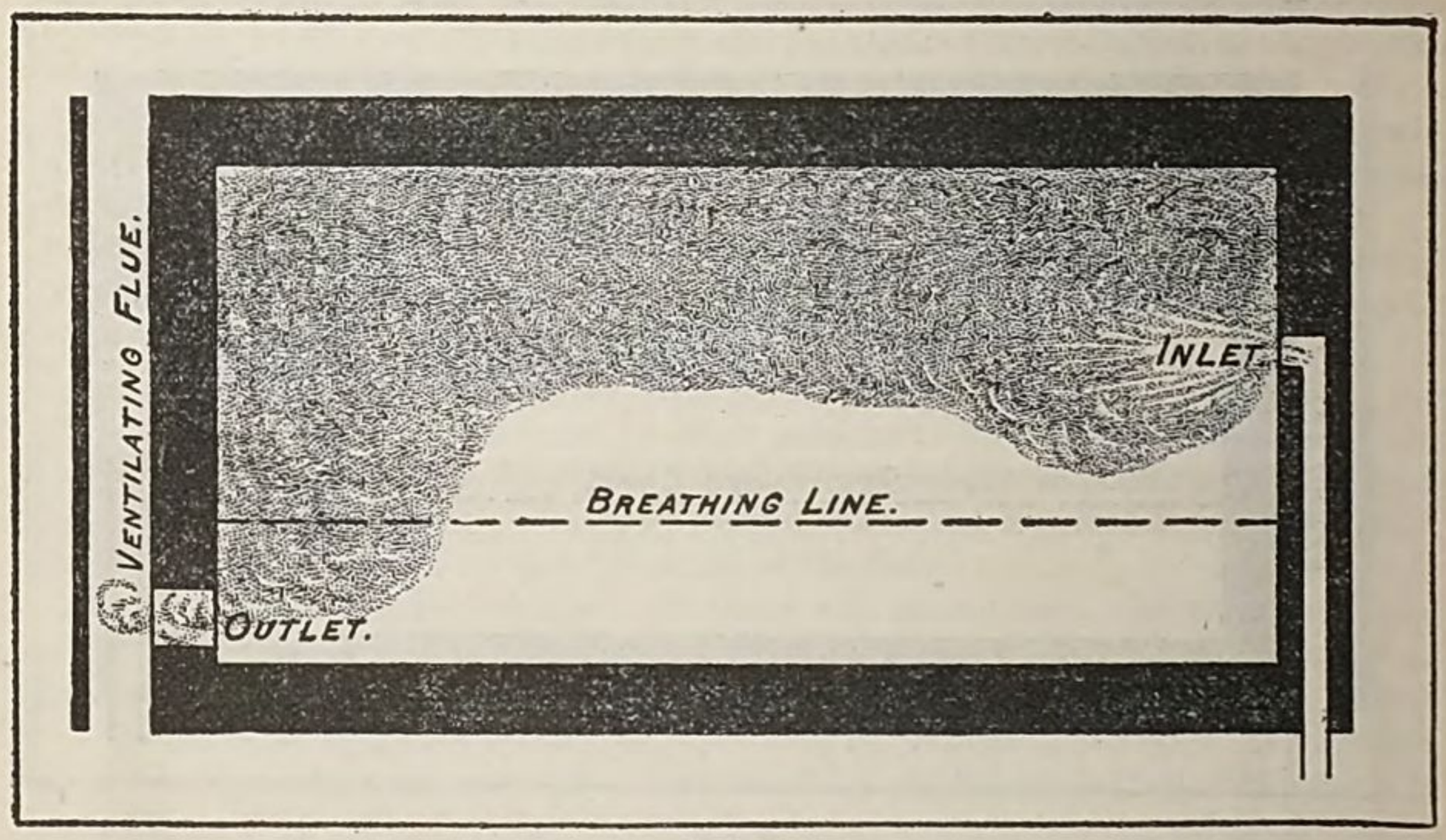

FIG. 11.

The second method in general use is the placing of the coil-boxes upon the inner wall and the removal of the foul air at the opposite or outer side of the rooms. I consider the placing of the coil-boxes on the inner wall a great improvement on

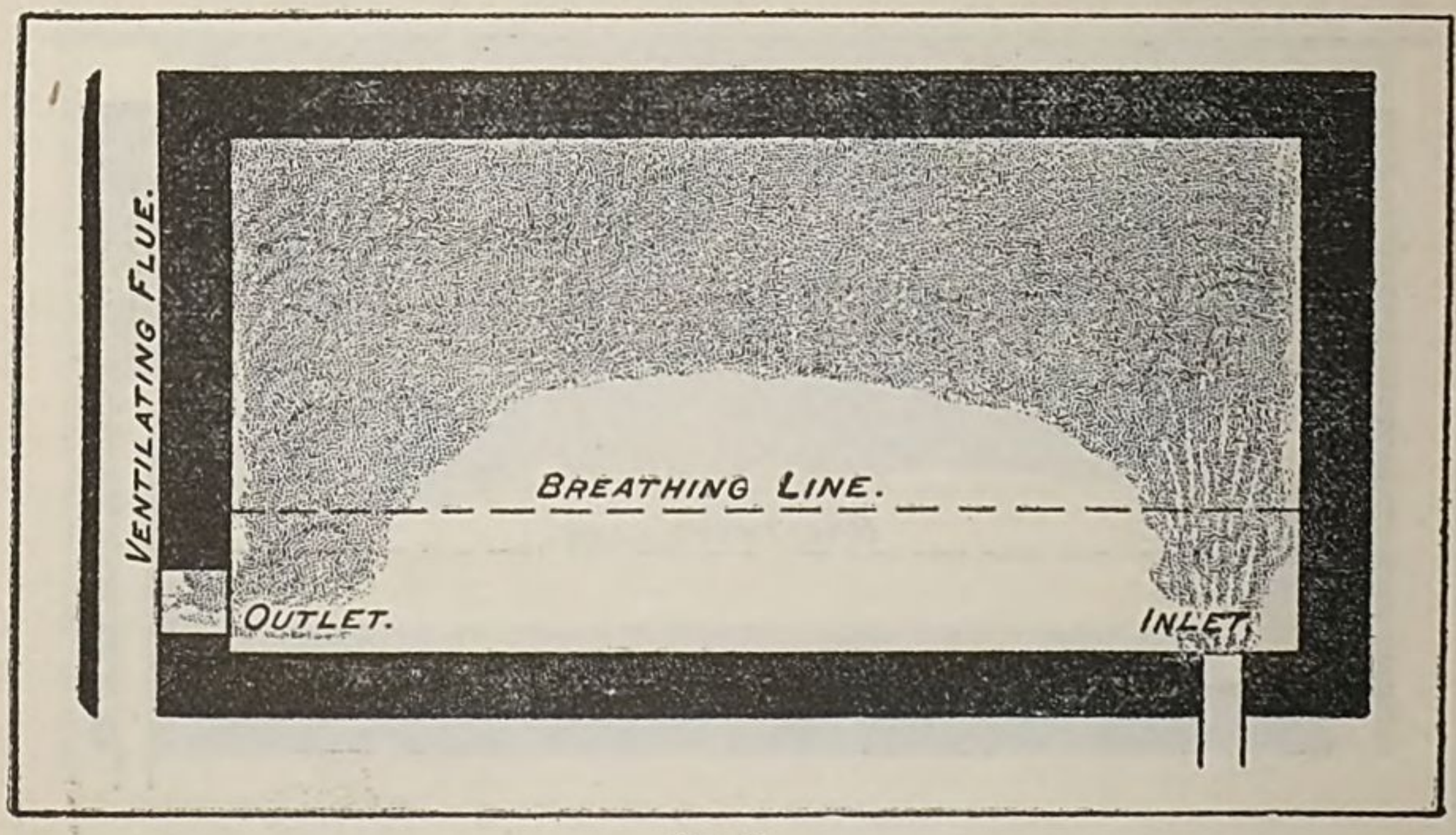

FIG. 12.

the other method, as by this plan they are centralized, extensive piping is saved, and the danger of freezing obviated. The placing of the exhaust flues on the opposite side of the room I believe to be open to the same objections that I have described in the first method. The action of the hot air, from the points where it is introduced toward the various outlets, is the same as in the sketches already shown, and will be readily understood by the reader.

In the Bridgeport school the coil boxes for the heating of the various rooms have all been placed in the main ventilating shafts in the center of the building, and the air conveyed from them through these shafts to the rooms by means of metal tubes. The air enters the inner corner of the room about 8 feet from the floor, the corner being clipped (see plans) so as to form a flat surface for the register opening; underneath the register the space is utilized for a closet for the use of the teacher. The outgoing flue has been placed directly under the platform, which is located in the same corner as the introduction flue. This platform measures 6 by 12 feet, and is supplied with casters, so that it can be moved at any time it is necessary to clean under it. Its entire lower edge is kept about 4 inches from the floor to give a full circulation of air under it at all points. The action of the incoming air is rapidly upward and outward, stratifying as it goes towards the cooler outer walls, thence flowing down their surfaces to the floor and back across the floor to the outgoing register on the inner corner of the room. By this method all the air entering is made to traverse with a circular motion (see Fig. 13) the entire room before it reaches the

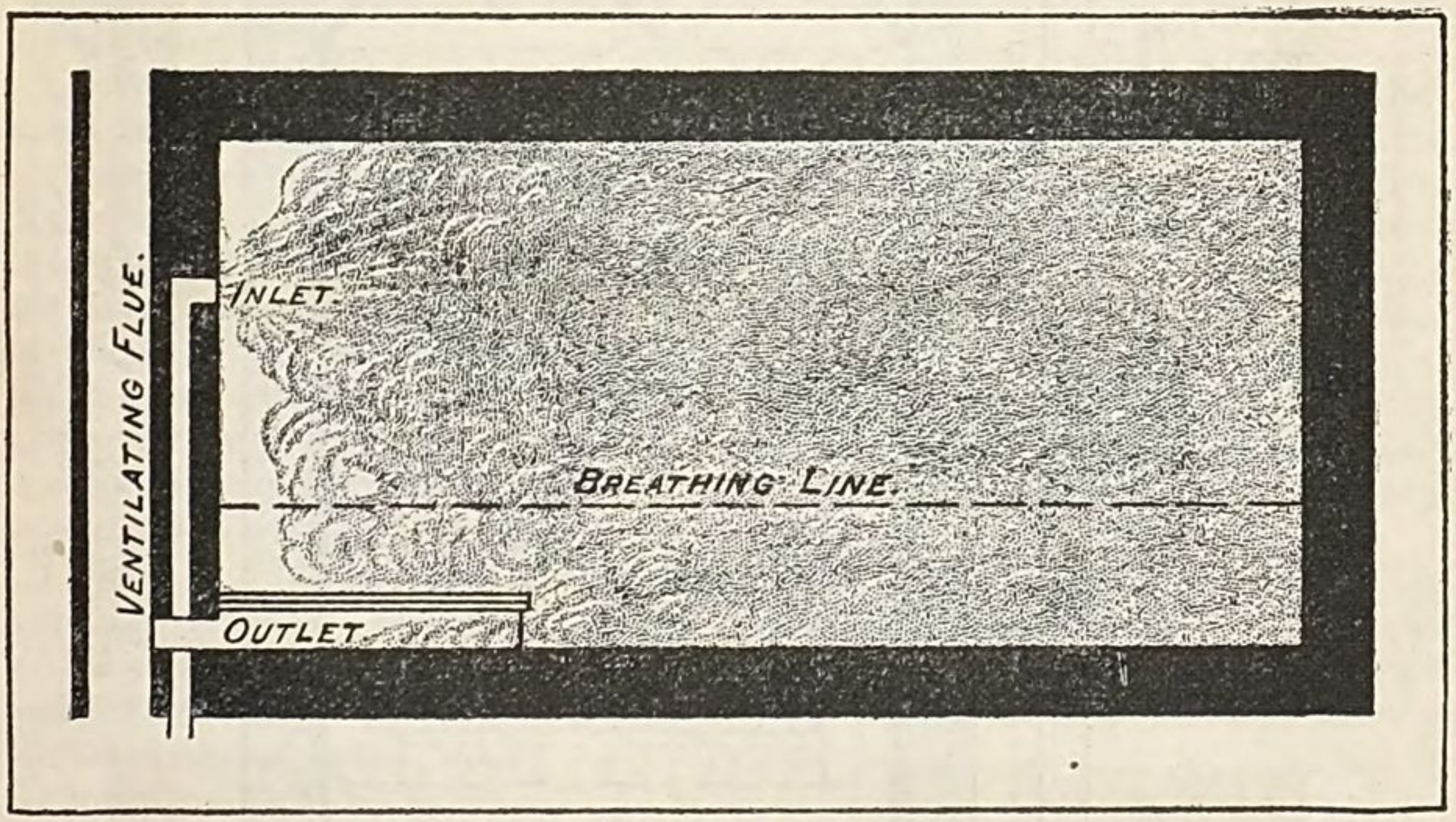

FIG. 13.

exhaust shaft, and there is a constant movement and mixing of the air in all parts of the room continually going on. All the heat entering is utilized, and I believe that if the supply and exhaust flues are properly balanced as to size that there can be a very small loss of heat.

The inlets are all intended to be large, and the flow of air through them moderate and steady. The air is not intended to be heated to a very high temperature; the large quantity introduced is expected to keep the thermometer at about 68° at the breathing level. The schoolrooms contain on an average about 13,000 feet of air, or 260 cubic feet per pupil. It is proposed to supply each pupil with 30 cubic feet of air each minute, or 1,800 cubic feet per hour. Allowing 50 pupils to each room this will necessitate the introduction of 90,000 cubic feet of air into the room each hour, and will change the air of the room 6.92 times within the hour, or once in about 8 minutes. These calculations are based on a difference of 30 degrees in the temperature. In the exhaust flues there are placed coils to produce a strong up-current at all times; heat is also obtained from radiation from the introduction and boiler flues, which run through the foul-air shafts.

Trouble has always been found in regulating the supply of warmed air obtained by the indirect system, owing to the inability to control the heating surfaces. The usual way of constructing the apparatus has been to place in the coil boxes sufficient steam pipe to heat the room in the coldest weather. The pure, cold air passing over

the pipes becomes heated to the desired temperature, and is then carried to the rooms. This answers very well during the coldest weather, but as the weather moderates and less heat is required, the only way to regulate it has been to close the registers. This not only lowers the temperature of the room, but shuts off the supply of pure air entering. This fault has been remedied in the Bridgeport schoolhouse as follows: The heating surface (steam pipes) for each room is inclosed in separate

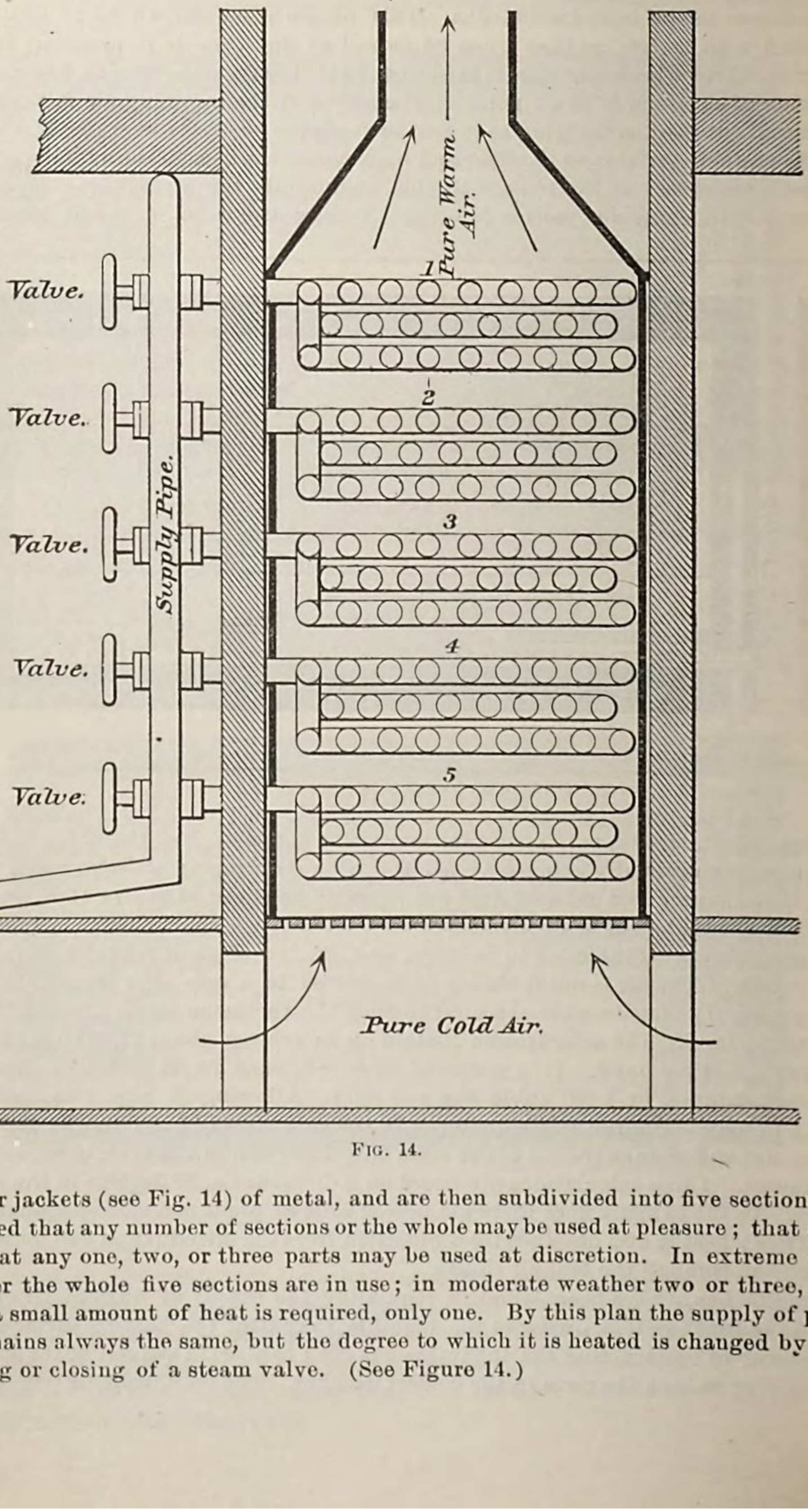

FIG. 14.

cases or jackets (see Fig. 14) of metal, and are then subdivided into five sections, so arranged that any number of sections or the whole may be used at pleasure; that is to say, that any one, two, or three parts may be used at discretion. In extreme cold weather the whole five sections are in use; in moderate weather two or three, and when a small amount of heat is required, only one. By this plan the supply of pure air remains always the same, but the degree to which it is heated is changed by the opening or closing of a steam valve. (See Figure 14.)

The arrangement of all the heating and ventilating apparatus in the center of the building renders it convenient and easy to manage, economical in its construction and effective in working. The advantage is also obtained of having all speaking tubes, call bells, and water pipes run through the ventilating shafts, where they are always accessible, as each shaft is provided with an iron ladder. This system has not only been introduced into each room, but into the halls as well. There are placed, moreover, in the halls foot warmers that are indicated on the plans. These warmers are simply steam pipes incased in tin boxes arranged between the floor joists; the pipes are packed in sand to temper the heat, and are covered at the floor level with checkered iron plates set flush with the floor. The tin cases referred to are water-tight, and have a drip pipe running down to the boiler room, so that in case of a leak no damage may be done to the building.

The boiler room floor is sunk some 6 feet below the level of the ground floor to insure a drip of all return pipes from the coils. The cold-air inlets are on four sides of the building, the openings being about 8 feet from the ground. These inlets are connected so that, whichever way the wind may be, a supply of pure cold air is always assured.

I have thus far spoken only of winter heating and ventilating; for summer ventilation I believe that there are no better inlets for the air than the windows. There are many devices that may be arranged in them that are simple and effective. It is not necessary to describe them here. The outlets, however, need a brief description. It is intended not only to use the outlet under the platform, but by a simple device the incoming register for warm air in winter is made to connect with the main outlet in summer, so that two outlets are provided during the warmer months. The upgoing current in the ventilating shafts is maintained in summer, as well as in winter, by heat; there being placed at the bottom of each shaft a stove, which is to be used constantly when the boilers are not in use, insuring an equally strong up-current in summer as in winter.

I would say, in conclusion, that many interesting experiments have been made and important facts established. These experiments have principally been made with a model of about one-sixth the capacity of the schoolrooms. They have always resulted most satisfactorily, and have proved the correctness of the principles herein advanced against the objections commonly raised that heat brought into the room on the inner walls will not sufficiently warm the outer walls. I would say that in every test yet made the registration of carefully graded thermometers has been from 1° to 2° warmer near the outer wall than near the inner, showing conclusively that the flow of heated air is rapidly towards cool surfaces, and that if its volume is sufficient it will counteract the radiation from the outer walls and render the temperature of the air in their immediate vicinity comfortable. Many other interesting facts have been established, and much useful data obtained, but I have neither the time nor the space here to describe them. I have purposely omitted in this paper all figures not actually necessary, aiming to make it a simple statement of my views, fortified by the results of actual experiments. If any should desire more minute details than are here given, by communicating with the writer he will willingly furnish all the information required, or should any be interested enough to come to this city, he will be pleased to go through with them some of the experiments here mentioned.

The building has been described throughout as it was designed to be built by the architect; some modifications have been found necessary, however, during the progress of the work.

APPENDIX III.

[A. P. MARBLE, *Worcester, Mass.*]

Since the preceding pages were prepared for the press several new plans for heating and ventilation have been introduced in this city, both in new houses and in old ones, with excellent results. The following description of these houses is taken from the Report of the Worcester, Mass., Schools for 1889. The only uncertainty as to the relative merits of these several systems is the item of cost in fuel consumption; but that will be determined later, and the results will be published. From the report for 1890, the description of the Salisbury Street house, and the instructions to janitors are also inserted.

THE QUINSIGAMOND HOUSE.*

This is a building of four rooms, two on each floor. The exterior is of hard-burned sand-struck bricks, with red mortar and granite trimmings. The facade is sparingly ornamented, but very effective in its simplicity. The basement is half above the ground; and the entrances under porches are raised only one or two steps. All the stairs are under cover and always free from ice. The basements are paved with asphaltum, with whitewashed walls, light, high, and airy. From these on opposite sides there are entrances into the closets—on one side for the boys and on the other for the girls; and from each closet is a door leading to the yard. Great care has been given to the lighting, the heating, the ventilation, and the sanitary arrangements of this house. The windows are massed on two sides of each room. They extend upward to the ceiling, and the sills are about four feet from the floor. They are provided with light colored holland curtains rolling from the bottom; and the sash are hung upon metallic cords. The blackboards are plates of native slate 3 by 4 feet each, extending around the walls in all the vacant spaces. The finish is of brown ash; the ceiling of corrugated iron; the walls of adamant plaster; and the floors of birch.

The heating apparatus consists of two large hot-air furnaces for the schoolrooms, and another for the halls and dressingrooms. The supply of fresh air is ample. It is received, on either side, into two rooms in the corners of the basement, each about 6 by 8 feet and having windows opening on adjacent sides of the house. A large conduit of galvanized iron conducts the air from the top of each of these rooms to a box leading to the bottom of the furnace. Passing into the bottom of the air chamber of the furnace, the air is warmed and it rises through a vertical brick flue some $2\frac{1}{2}$ by $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet in horizontal section, and is delivered into each schoolroom through an opening at least $2\frac{1}{2}$ by 3 feet placed in the wall six or eight feet from the floor. By means of a damper, connected with this flue and controlled in the schoolroom, the hot-air flue may be partly closed and an opening made into the cold-air chamber; and in this way the temperature is regulated without shutting off the supply of fresh air. From each room the air is exhausted through a similar flue leading to the basement. The opening into this flue is in the wall near the floor; both these openings

* See Figs. 53–57.

and those for the ingress of air are protected by wire screens with a mesh of about 1½ inches, but there is no means of closing them. Unlike the ordinary register, the wire screen obstructs the free passage of air but very little. This flow of air is uninterrupted. The ventilation is continuous. These ventilating flues are connected at the bottom with a large shaft extending through the roof. The upward current in this shaft is produced partly by the heat of the smoke-flue which adjoins it, and partly by a small stove or furnace at the bottom of the shaft. This stove is to be heated always in weather when the furnaces are not in use, and at other times if necessary to secure the draft from the schoolrooms. During school hours, the air is warmed, passed into the schoolroom, where it circulates thoroughly to every part, and out through the ventilators and the shaft, at the rate of at least 30 cubic feet per scholar a minute. By an ingenious, patented, and perhaps unnecessarily complex, contrivance, there is a box through a part of which the cold air is passed into the furnace and through another part of which the vitiated air also passes from the ventilating flues into the shaft; and in this box a large damper is so arranged that by a single motion or half-turn of a crank, the cold air is shut off from the box, and at the same time the air from the schoolroom is shut off from the shaft and turned into the furnace. Thus, at night and while the school is not in session, the air from the room may be circulated through the furnace to be warmed, and back again to the room. The hall furnace opens through registers in the floor in both the halls and the dressing rooms—this for more conveniently warming the feet; and the air from the halls supplies the furnace. Floor-registers are always bad, however, because of the dust from dirty feet. They are less objectionable in halls than in schoolrooms.

The closets are in an extension of the basement beyond the building, on the back side. The vaults are of brick, fire-proof, and so constructed that they may be closed, all at once, by an iron cover at the top; and they are connected by a brick flue, at the surface of the basement, with the smoke flue. At the end of each is a grate in which a fire may be built occasionally, with the tops closed; and the contents are consumed. The pavements of these closets are concrete or slate. The urinals are made of slate slabs set against the wall, slate partitions between the several compartments, a gutter at the bottom leading to the vault, and an opening for ventilation downward, through which the air passes into the vault and up the smoke flue. Lavatories of the ordinary house pattern are provided for the teachers in dressing-rooms on each floor, between the schoolrooms, and adjoining the heating flues. This house is one of the most complete, if not the most complete, in all its appointments, as it is the newest, of any in the city. Its working has been satisfactory, and in accordance with the theory, the past winter. But this winter has been unusually mild. There is no reason to think that it will not be equally satisfactory in the coldest weather.

The cost of this four-room house has been $23,878.55, including $3,800 for the land.

EXTENSIVE REPAIRS.

Material alterations have been made at the Lamartine Street, the Ash Street, and the Belmont Street houses, by which the entire system of heating, ventilation, and closets has been changed; and in each the method employed is different from the other.

At Lamartine street the improvements have been made upon substantially the same principles of heating and ventilation as at the new house described above. The air is heated by four furnaces with a very large area of heating surface; it passes into the schoolrooms through vertical brick flues, in which a damper, operated in the schoolroom by the teacher, regulates the proportion of warm and cold air and thus secures the right temperature. The openings are protected by wire screens, and they can not be closed. The ventilating flues have openings at the floor, and extend downward to the basement, beneath which they are connected with the bottom of a ventilating shaft in which the air is rarified by a furnace to create

the draft. The cold air in this house is taken directly to the chamber of the furnace from the outside, instead of from a room in the basement; and in each of these flues there is an automatic damper, a patented device, it is understood, by which too great pressure of air into the furnace is avoided when the wind blows. If the air is forced in too rapidly the flue is partly closed, or wholly closed for the moment, in case of a sudden gust.

The sanitary appliances in this house differ from those at Quinsigamond in this respect; that instead of a fire for burning the contents of the vault, there is a flow of water into the vault, regulated by a ball-cock; and at intervals the contents are discharged into the sewer. The urinals have a trough made of a slab of varying width; and they are ventilated at the bottom. They have no partitions to separate the sections, and they are inferior to those last described. The ventilation of the vaults is through an underground channel into the smoke-flue, like the Quinsigamond house. There appears to be no provision for rotating the air from the rooms through the furnace, to be heated at night, as in the last-named school. A damper in the ventilating shaft, to be closed at night, prevents the motion of the air.

The halls and corridors are heated by the surplus warm air direct from the furnaces, conducted in galvanized iron pipes of large size. The cost of repairs upon this house of twelve rooms, as per auditor's report, has been $8,375.72.

The Ash Street house has been heated by indirect steam with a Sturtevant blower, run by a 10-horse power engine, to force the air through the radiating coil. The air passes into the several rooms through vertical brick flues extending from the basement upward between the schoolrooms; and the openings into the rooms are at a height of 6 or 8 feet from the floor, as in the two last-named houses. The connection from the radiating chamber to these flues is made by galvanized iron conduits; and these conduits have two flues each, one for cold air and one for warm, with a damper controlled by the janitor * in the basement, to regulate the proportion of warm and cold air to be discharged into the room for regulating the temperature. Ventilating flues of brick, built in connection with the hot air flues, opening into the room near the floor, and extending upward and out at the roof, provide means for the exit of air; these flues chiefly depend for their draft upon the pressure of air from the fan, or blower, into the room. Sheet-iron pipes deliver the fresh warm air into each of the dressing rooms. The air is taken from the outside into the blower through a screened window, about three feet wide by five or six feet high. New water-closets have been erected in a separate building in the yard, connected with the schoolhouse, on the girl s' side, by a covered and inclosed walk. The building is provided with common earthen-ware hopper closets, flushed from a single tank, all at once, by the janitor in the basement. The urinals are of slate, with slate partitions dividing the sections, and flushed at intervals by the janitor by means of a perforated pipe extending along near the top. This building is warmed by steam coils connected with the boiler. So far as appears, the ventilation is through the windows, the doors, and the monitor-top. The cost of repairing this six-room house has been $4,628.20.

At Belmont street. This large house of 18 rooms was formerly heated by direct steam. In the old part, of 12 rooms, there were no means of ventilation except the doors and windows; and in the addition of 6 rooms the ventilating flues, though 2 from each room were built for exhausting the vitiated air near the floor, were inadequate for that rapid movement of air which is required by late sanitary science. In the heating of this house the direct piping was allowed to remain for use in extreme weather, if it should be found necessary. An additional boiler was set up, and indirect radiating coils were located in brick chambers at convenient points, from which vertical brick flues of large section extend to the several rooms. The fresh air is supplied to these chambers as it is supplied to the furnaces in the Lamartine Street house; and there is the same contrivance for regulating the temperature, by

* It is always preferable for the damper to be controlled by the teacher in the schoolroom.

letting on more or less of the cold air without obstructing the ventilation. This is done by the teacher in each room. Ventilation is secured by means of a circular fan, 7 feet in diameter, placed to revolve horizontally at the foot of a brick shaft. Each room is connected with this shaft through the floor, or near the floor, by means of brick flues or galvanized iron pipes extending to the basement, and communicating with the shaft through a spacious brick passage in the basement. The fan is run by a separate boiler and a 6-horse power engine.

The water closets are located in a separate building in the yard adjoining the schoolhouse and connected with both the basement and the yard. The closets are built above long vaults filled with water, as in the Lamartine Street house. These vaults were at first connected with the ventilating shaft; and so long as the fan was in motion they were well ventilated; but when the fan stopped at the close of school there was nothing to prevent the foul odors from the closets from passing into the schoolrooms. They are now ventilated through another flue heated by a separate stove. The urinals are similar to those at Lamartine street, described above. These closets are heated by direct steam. The cost of these repairs has been $12,257.36.

REMARKS UPON THE VARIOUS METHODS OF HEATING AND VENTILATING.

Though these four houses have been in use one winter, it is too early to judge of their relative merits. With the exception of a slight break in the engine at Ash street, which interrupted the school a day or two, and the ventilation of the closets at Belmont street, which has now been made right, they have all worked well. In each case the tests repeatedly applied have shown an air supply equal to 20 or 30 cubic feet of air per minute per child, which is ample; and in all cases the air in the schoolrooms is quite pure and free from all disagreeable odors.

In order to apply tests to all the newly ventilated schoolhouses under all conditions and for a series of months, the committee on schoolhouses have purchased four or five anemometers or air-meters and placed them in the hands of the principals of the schools, with directions for their uniform use, and for similar records of the results.

It will be observed that the principles applied in the heating and ventilation, and to some extent in the sanitary appliances, at the Quinsigamond and the Lamartine Street houses are identical. In the practical application there are variations. Both these houses are built, in these respects, substantially upon the methods introduced the year before at Dix street, and before that at Ledge street and at Adams square. This plan is known as the Smead system. Its working has been entirely satisfactory in all the houses where it is in use; and so far, none of the methods outlined above have shown any superiority to it. Whether either of them will prove superior can be determined only by experience, and by comparison of the cost of fuel. Whether the furnaces at Quinsigamond which are smaller, or the larger ones at Lamartine street, which have never been used anywhere else, will prove more effective than the Smead furnace, in raising a large volume of air to a moderate temperature; and which of the three will prove the most economical of fuel and the easiest to manage, can be known only by trial, with equally careful and efficient janitors. Whichever proves to be the best should be introduced into the new houses to be built hereafter.

The costly experiments with four methods of heating and ventilating schoolhouses, have placed the city in a position to know what is best; and they have attracted the attention of committees from all parts of the country. It is not likely that five or six different plans, none of them without merit, can be seen in any other one place.

There has been a difference of opinion as to whether a sufficiently rapid change of air in a schoolroom, to supply thirty cubic feet of air per minute to each of forty or fifty pupils, can be secured without some mechanical means. This has been done without machinery at Dix street, Adams square and Ledge street, and the past year at Quinsigamond and at Lamartine street. For very large buildings of irregular construction, and where the basements cannot be used for furnaces with direct vertical flues, indirect steam heat is undoubtedly the best; and a fan is very useful to move

the air. But for ordinary schoolhouses, if the radiating surface is large so as never to be overheated, the warm air furnace is more prompt, more direct, and more economical of fuel. Unlike a business block, a schoolhouse is in use only five or six hours a day. During this time the air within should be changed about once in fifteen minutes, and the temperature should be kept steadily at 68° or 70°. For the rest of the twenty-four hours the temperature may be much lower. Under these conditions the heat can be generated quicker and fuel and heat more easily saved when not needed, in a furnace than with a steam boiler. And ventilation can be secured by a heated flue as well as by a fan. The heated flue has this advantage that it will draw when the janitor is not present; while the fan has to stop if the engineer is away, or at the close of school; and there are no conditions under which a flue will not draw if heated. The fan is not always positive in its operation. If all the rooms are closed in a calm day, and if the ducts are of equal length and capacity, and the registers of the same size, a fan will deliver an equal quanity of air to each of several rooms in a given time; but if one of the rooms is opened, or if it is located on the leeward side of the house in a gale, or if its register is larger, then this room will receive from the fan a greater quantity of air than the other rooms. The same is true of an exhaust fan. The fan then depends upon favorable or uniform conditions for uniformity of action, just as much as the heated flue does. It is more expensive, more liable to disorder, requires more care and skill, and does not work alone. It should not be used when the simpler means will do the work as well.

The Salisbury Street house * was completed and occupied for the first time in September, 1890. It contains ten rooms, all spacious and well lighted. The ceilings are of iron. The corridors are broad—almost too roomy; and the house has an elaborate system of heating by steam and ventilation by means of a fan driven by steam power. In this house the system of exhaust ventilation has been introduced. From each room a flue extends to the exhaust-room from which the fan forces the air, thus withdrawing it from the room. With this system there is a practical difficulty: If a door is left open, or if there are cracks around the windows or elsewhere, the cold outer air is urged into the schoolroom. More air is withdrawn by the fan than enters through the heating-stacks. It has now been practically shown that it is much better to force the warm air into the room if a fan is used, as seems advisable in large houses heated by steam. In this case the surplus air which does not find an exit through the ventilating flues, passes outward through the doors when open, and through the crevices around the windows. The quantity of air received into the room through the heating apparatus would be in excess of that which passes outward through the ventilators, this excess finding an exit elsewhere.

DIRECTIONS FOR JANITORS OF SCHOOL-HOUSES, WORCESTER, MASS.

(1) To sweep the entries, stairways, and schoolrooms, and brush out the chalk trays twice each week; and to sweep the entries and stairways daily, when necessary.

(2) To dust the furniture as often as the rooms are swept, and the windows, blinds, walls, and ceilings as frequently as may be necessary to keep them in good order.

(3) To wash the floors, doors, stairs, balusters, seats, desks, and other wood-finish, and to clean carpets during the summer vacations; to wash the windows twice each year—once in the month of April and once the last week in August.

(4) To build fires whenever they are needed, and in season to have the room suitably warmed at the time for opening the schools. Where the buildings are heated by steam the janitor is not to leave the building during the school session without notification and consent of the principal of the school; to give attention to the fire during the day, and to visit the schoolrooms as often as necessary to see that they are properly warmed and not overheated (68 to 70 degrees being the proper temperature)—these visits to be at least once in each school session, and at such hours as may be agreed upon, unless excused by the principal of the school.

(5.) In buildings heated by furnaces and provided with a system of ventilation, janitors are to remain in or about the building, and are not to leave during the

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* See Figs. 61, 62.

school session (as per paragraph 4); and under ordinary circumstances the cold-air boxes must be kept wide open for the admission of outside air; in case of very high winds it may be necessary to partly close the slides, but this is to be regarded as exceptional, and must not be practiced habitually.

(6.) When the buildings have no special ventilating apparatus the furnaces are not to be left while the drafts are open; and in buildings of more than four rooms, the janitors are to remain during the school sessions.

(7.) They are to see that the receptacles for water are kept full.

(8.) Where stoves are used, fuel sufficient for the day must be carried to the several rooms. Where steam-heating apparatus is used it shall be kept clean and in good order. Boilers shall all be blown off as often as necessary, and the tubes cleaned once each week. The safety valves should be tried every day, and all other valves kept properly packed. Ashes shall be drawn from under the boilers each day. Janitors of buildings heated by steam will be held responsible for the safety of the pipes from freezing. In extremely cold weather they must take unusual precaution, either by remaining during the night or until satisfied of the safety of the apparatus.

(9.) Janitors must keep themselves informed in regard to the condition of the heating apparatus and give immediate notice of any possible danger arising therefrom.

(10.) It is not required that fires shall be kept up on holidays or during vacations, except enough to protect the apparatus.

(11.) Hot water only to be used in thawing steam or water pipes.

(12.) Janitors shall remove the snow and make paths in the yards leading to the several entrances, and to the outbuildings, and shall pile the snow in a place most convenient for its removal, if necessary; and shall sprinkle sand or ashes upon the walks when in a slippery condition.

(13.) To use the fuel economically; to screen the ashes, and to burn the screenings on the fires.

(14.) To shut any windows that may be left open at the close of the school session, and to keep the windows, outside doors (including those of the outbuilding), and the gates locked except during school hours.

(15.) To take every precaution to avoid accidents from fire.

(16.) Janitors shall maintain a general supervision of the estates during vacation. When workmen are employed on the premises, or when fuel is received, they are to see that none of the property is misused or taken away.

(17.) No person not connected with the schools shall be allowed on the premises without permission from the superintendent of public buildings, or the principal of the school; and smoking in or about the buildings is prohibited.

(18.) To notify the superintendent of public buildings whenever repairs are needed upon the buildings in their care: but janitors are expected to make good small defects around their schoolhouses when such can be done in less time and to greater advantage than by giving notice to the superintendent.

(19.) To do such other work as properly belongs to the office.

(20.) Whenever a vacation occurs of a week or more, janitors shall see that all movable property, such as maps, globes, charts, etc., is securely locked up.

(21.) Janitors, in the performance of their duties, are under the direction of the principals of the schools, and of the superintendent of public buildings, under the direction of the joint standing committee on public buildings.

(22.) Substitutes for janitors must be approved by the superintendent of public buildings; and only in cases of emergency will the employment of an unauthorized person in the place of a janitor be allowed by the superintendent.

(23.) Principals are requested to report monthly to the superintendent of schools upon the conduct of their janitors, and he will notify the suberintendent of public buildings of any neglect or inefficiency.

Approved by the School Committee.

WORCESTER, *November*, 4, 1890.

APPENDIX IV.

PLANS AND SPECIFICATIONS OF SCHOOLHOUSES.

[Extract from a circular issued in 1881 by State Superintendent William C. Whitford, of Wisconsin.]

* * * The ninth design is furnished by Henry C. Koch & Co., architects, of Milwaukee. It is for a one-story, elegant school building, containing three school-

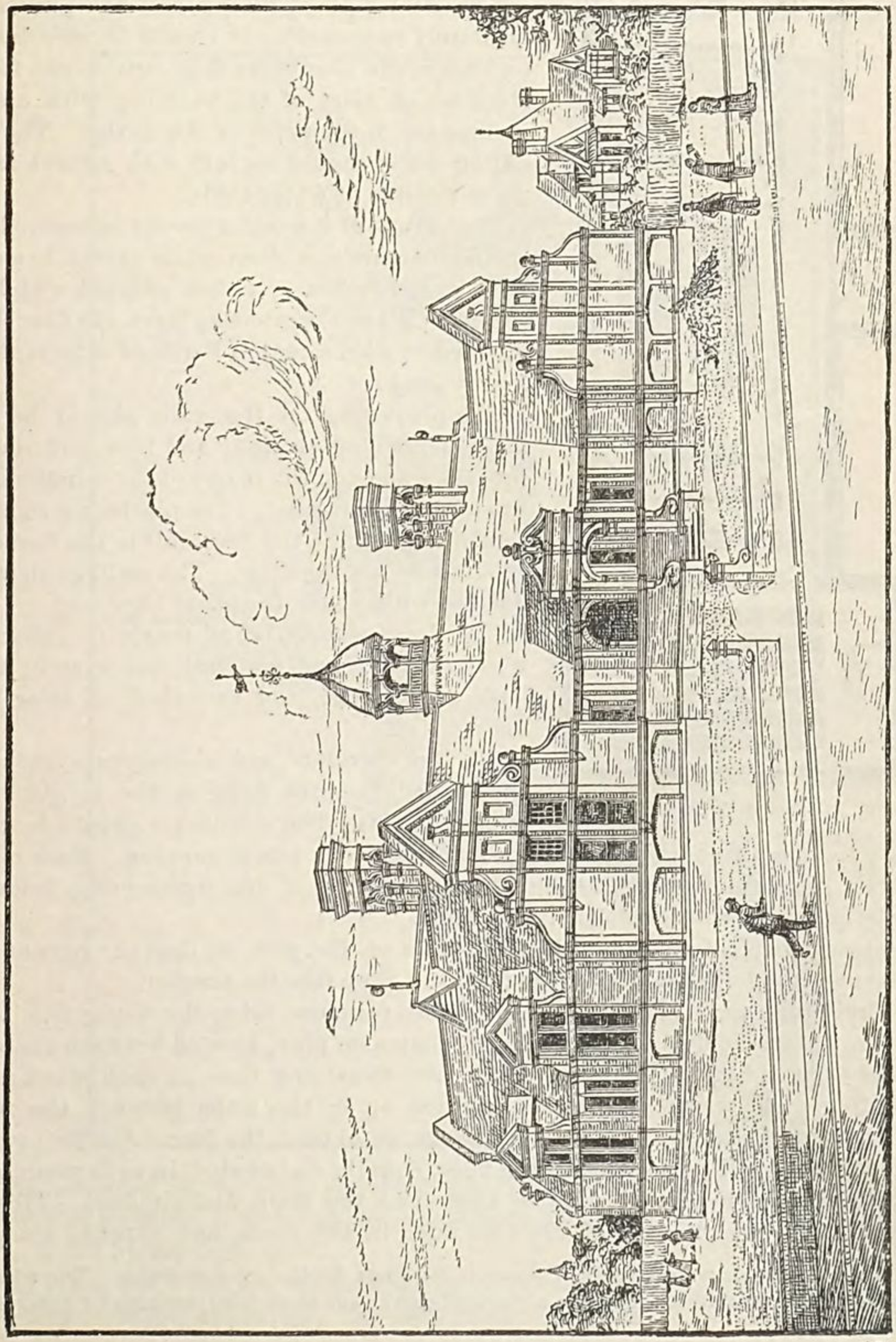

FIG. 1.—Design 9, perspective view.

rooms and a teacher's room, which are connected together by a long corridor in front. Separate wardrobes for girls and boys lead from this corridor into the schoolrooms, and are used for the entrance and exit of the pupils. The schoolrooms are indicated on the plan by the rows of desks. The room shown without desks is for the principal of the school, and can be used for the recitation of classes when necessary.

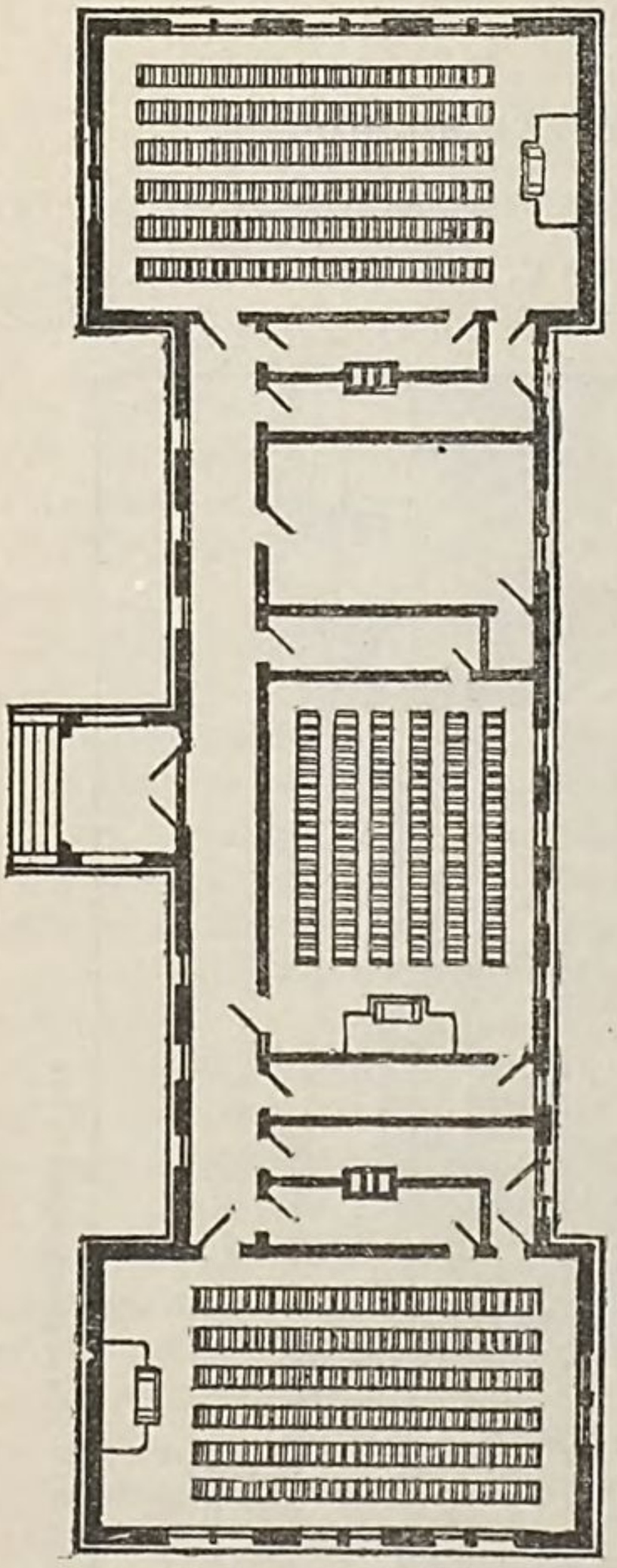

FIG. 2.—Design 9, floor plan.

The central part of the building is 140 by 46 feet, and will accommodate 228 pupils in the three rooms. This design requires that the building be of brick, with a stone basement up to the line of the top of the water table. The belts and pilasters are of brick, and the copings on gables of stone or terra cotta. This roof may be slated or shingled.

The site for the building and the ground immediately surrounding it should be well drained, and drain tile should be laid outside the footing stone on all sides of the building, with a slight inclination to the point of the outlet. The foundation walls should be laid with cement mortar up to the line of water table.

The bottom of the cellar should be covered with small stone spalls or clean coarse gravel, to a depth of at least 4 inches, and then grouted with liquid cement. When the grouting is set, the floor should be finished with a coat of Portland cement at least 1 inch thick.

The plastering on the walls should be sand-finish, floated off straight and true, and rounded into the frames on the jambs of the windows. No wood casings are used. The plastering should be continued down to the floor, full to the face of the grounds for wainscoting. The ceilings should be finished white, with the usual hard coat.

The floors should be of maple or other hard wood, dressed and matched, not over 2½ inches wide on the face, and smoothed off after being laid.

All the corridors and schoolrooms should be wainscoted from the floor to the height of the window stools. The wardrobes should be wainscoted 6 feet high from the floor, and all finished with a neat capping. Back of each teacher's platform is the blackboard, and the top of the wainscoting below the blackboard is finished with a shelf for chalk.

The teacher's platform should be located as on the plan, so that the rays of light will be over the left shoulders of the pupils as they face the teacher.

The building can be heated by means of two furnaces, using the center flue in each stack for the smoke flue. The stacks are shown on plan, located between the wardrobes at each end of the building. The two remaining flues in each stack are for ventilation. The warm-air flues are carried up in the walls between the rooms, which they may enter through registers above, at, or near, the floor. A sufficient number of registers will be inserted in the floor, equally distributed, in each room, and a foul-air duct connected with each of these and the main foul-air duct. This last duct is connected with one of the vent flues in the stack, and extends along the

NOTE.—This house is not compact. The cost is too great for the accommodation. The admission of warm air is not on correct principles, as outlined above; and there is no provision for water-closets. A. P. M.

ceiling of the basement to a point necessary to receive all the branch ducts from the registers in the floors.

The capacity of the main duct should be fully equal to the combined capacity of all the branch ducts which it receives. All the foul-air ducts should be made as nearly air-tight as possible.

The important consideration in this branch of the work is to provide inlets for fresh air and outlets for foul air, both of sufficient capacity to insure a complete change of the air in the room in the shortest time possible without producing a perceptible draft. The capacity of the foul-air ducts should always exceed that of the fresh-air ducts.

The eleventh design, furnished by H. C. Koch & Co., architects, of Milwaukee, is of a building to be erected in a small city or populous village. It is two stories high and contains four schoolrooms and two teachers' or recitation rooms. The latter are each 16 by 18 feet in the floor area. The upper story is a repetition of the lower

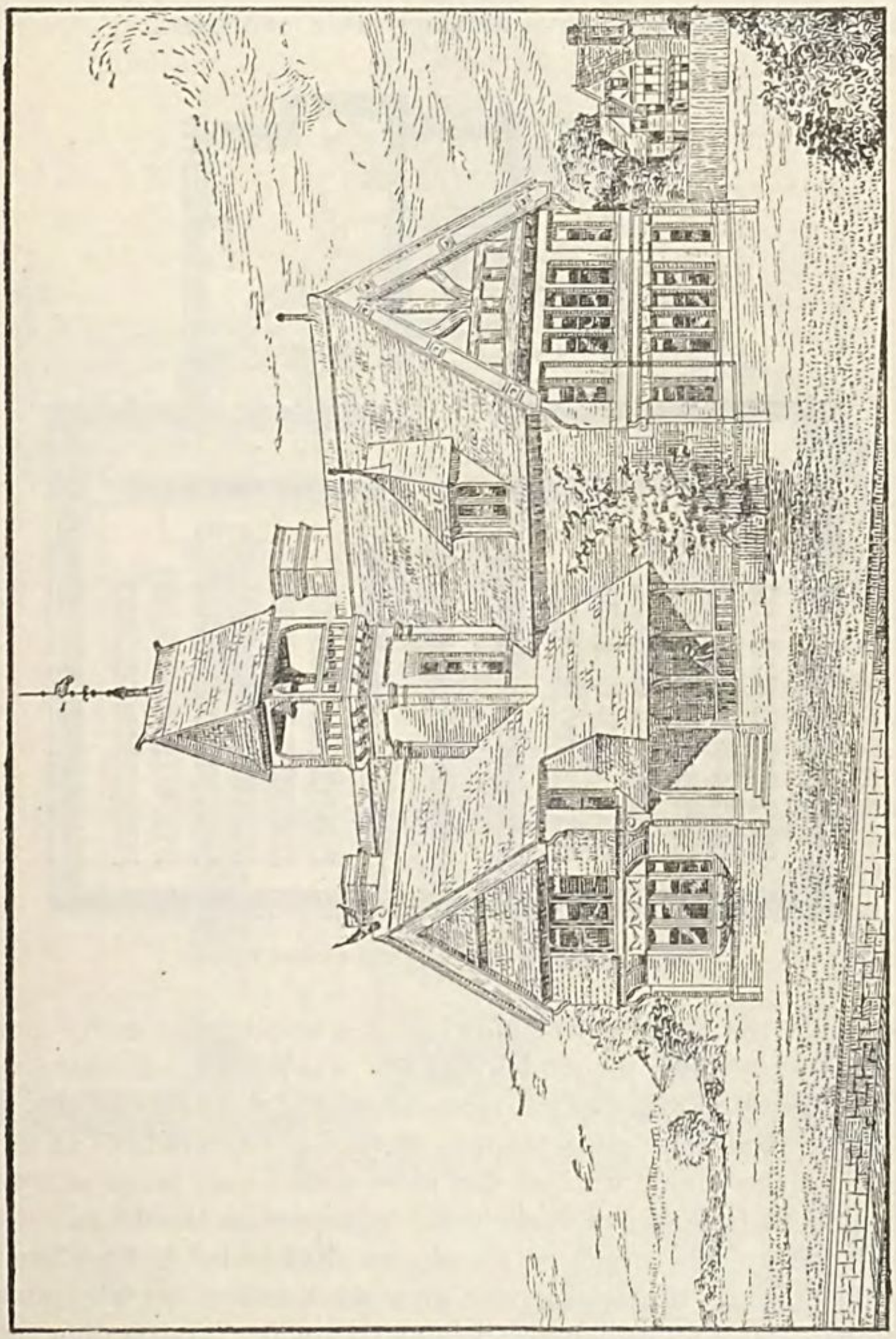

FIG. 3.—Design 11, perspective view.

one, as indicated on the plan, and each should be 14 feet in height. The main portion of the building is 67 by 45 feet at the base, and the wing, not including the porch, is 26¾ by 24¾ feet.

Both brick and wood are required in the construction. The front gable above the first story is frame, as are also the end gables from the line of the eaves, and the

remainder of the outside walls, as well as the inside ones, are built of brick. The frame portions of the gables project over the walls below and are finished with shingles. The end gables are in imitation of timber work. The style of the building, while unusual, is plain and very attractive. The cost of erection is by no means greatly increased by the new features. The method of shingling portions of the outside walls, employed in this design as well as in some others in this circular, is a return to the plans used in this country over a hundred years ago. Such a covering is found to be warmer than clapboarding and to wear much longer. Besides it gives a picturesque effect to the building.

See description under ninth design for the construction of the foundation and cellar, and for the finish of the inside throughout.

Each schoolroom will accommodate 60 pupils, seated at single desks. The separate wardrobes for the sexes and connected with each room furnish all needed facilities for depositing the clothing. Through them the girls and boys enter and leave the room at different doors. The extra room on each floor for the teachers or for the recitation of small classes will prove very desirable additions.

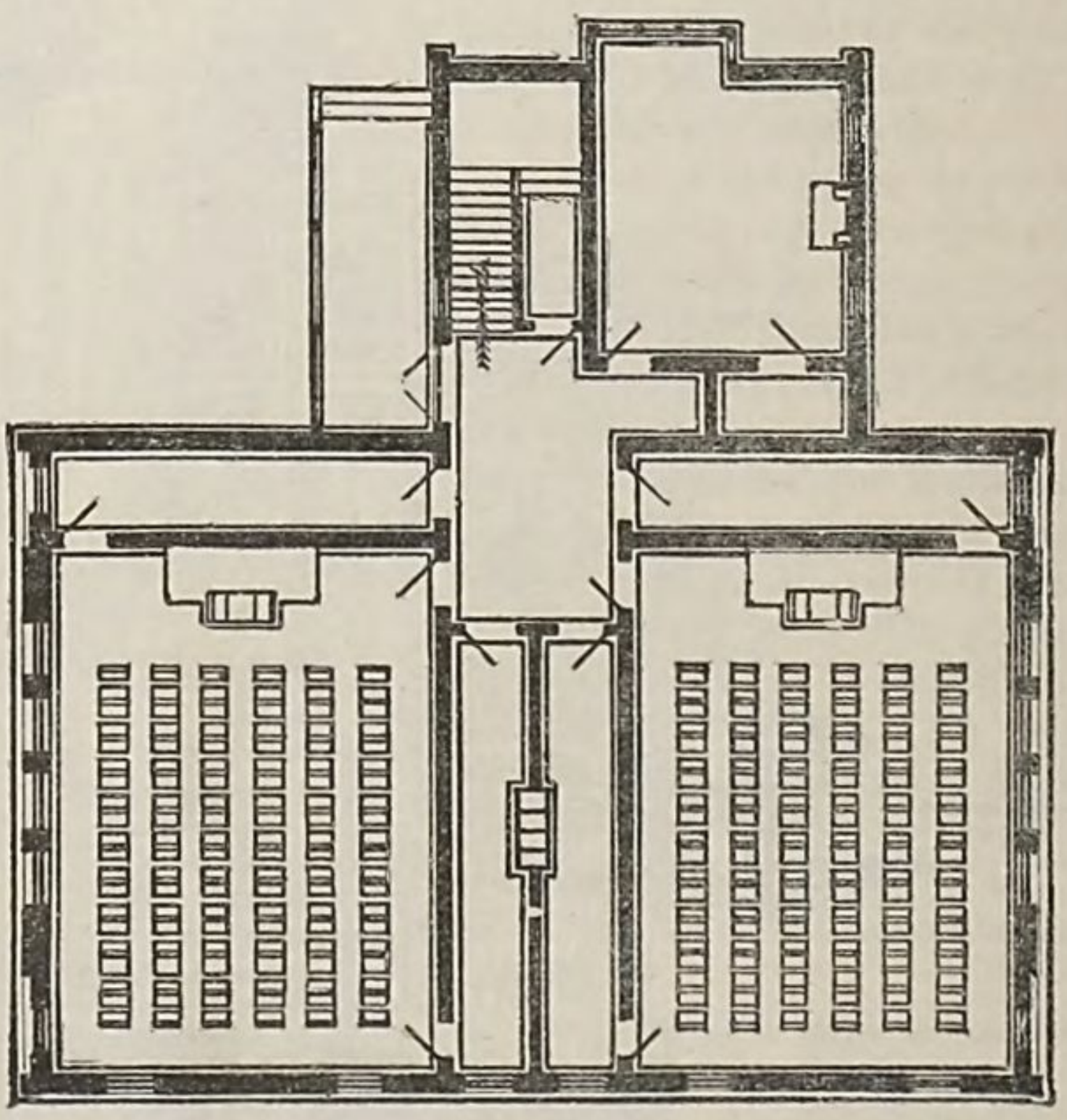

FIG. 4.—Design 11, first and second floors.

The grouping of the principal windows at the side of the study rooms is in conformity to the established principles for the wholesome admission of light. In one-half of the building the light is received on the right side of the pupils. This is more advisable than to require them to sit facing the windows at the rear end of the room, or even the blank wall at the side, with a very large share of the light streaming over their backs upon their books or papers on the desks.

The twelfth design was prepared by Messrs. Edbrooke & Burnham, architects, of Chicago. It presents the appearance of a solid, enduring, symmetrical, and imposing structure. Its external embellishments are few and simple, and therefore adapted to its general style. It would be an ornament to any village or city.

The outside walls of the basement are built of stone, 18 inches in thickness, and its partition walls of brick, 8 inches in thickness. The exterior walls of the first and second stories are brick, 12 inches in thickness, and the partition walls are wood, with studding varying in size for the places it occupies. The height of the basement

in the clear between joists is 7 feet 8 inches; of the first story, 13 feet 3 inches; and of the second story, 14 feet 3 inches. The sectional area of the house, measured at the base of the first story, is 49 feet 6 inches by 52 feet.

The building furnishes the usual conveniences for corridors, pupils' wardrobes, teachers' or recitation rooms, and apartments for study. Two quite spacious rooms are set apart in the basement as play rooms for girls and boys. These can be used in wet or stormy weather, or in places where no sufficient playgrounds can be provided in the school yard. Each schoolroom will accommodate 35 pupils at single desks, or very comfortably 42 pupils at double desks. Each of the former number would have 19.7 square feet of floor surface, and of the latter almost 16.5 square

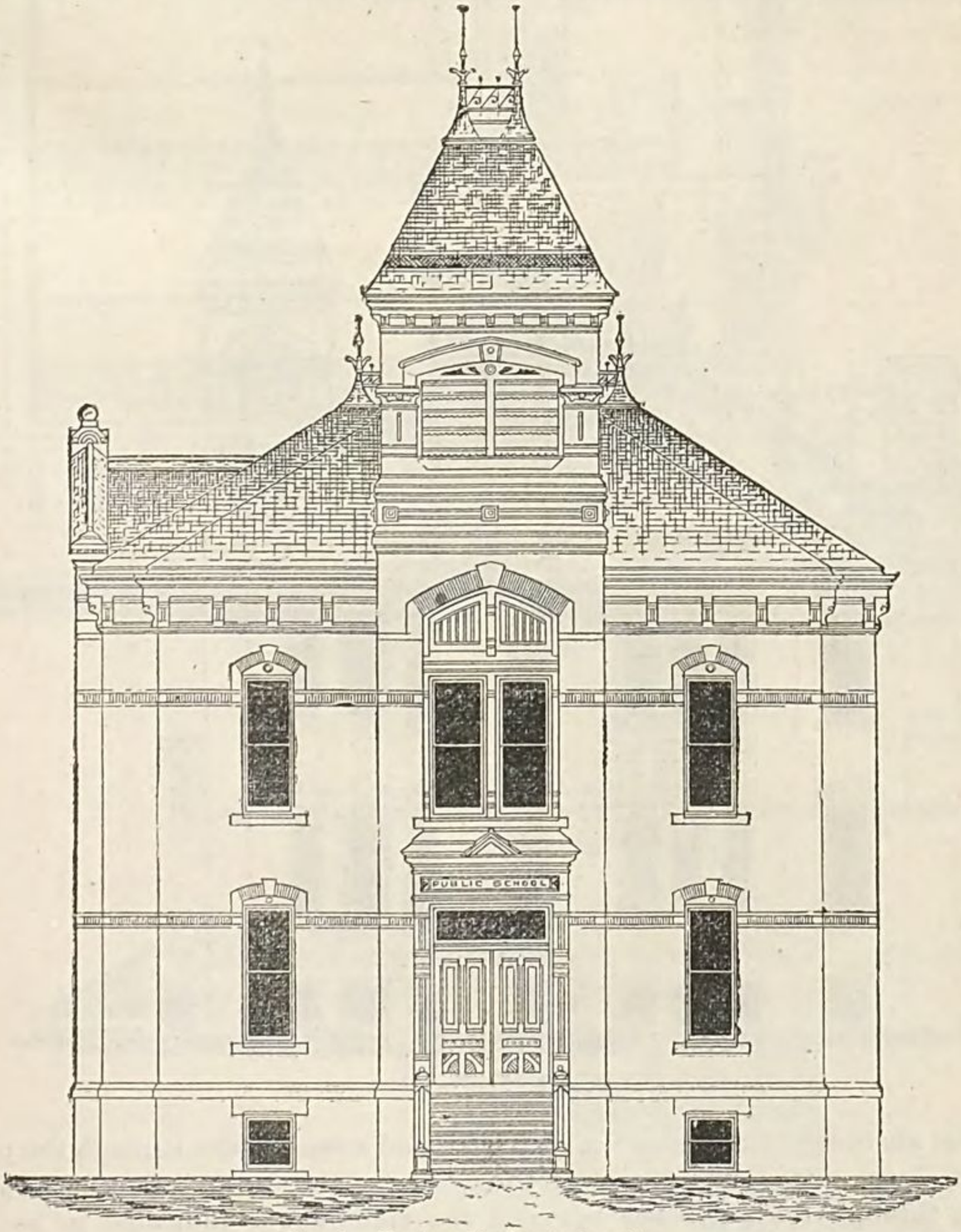

FIG. 5.—Design 12, front elevation.

feet. If small children should occupy the rooms on the first floor, one row of seven single desks could be added to each room with the double desks, and in it 49 pupils would then be seated and each have slightly over 14 square feet of floor space.

The crowning feature of this schoolhouse consists in the arrangements for the ventilation of all its parts. A more complete and perfect application of the Ruttan system to a school building has never before been devised. In this design it has been effected under the immediate direction of Isaac D. Smead, the able representative of this system. The accompanying plans and sections exhibit the details of the arrangements for the heating and ventilation of the building.

Immediately underneath the platform of the front steps, as seen on the longitudinal section, is the fresh-air chamber, communicating with the outdoors through windows covered with heavy wire screens. From this chamber a fresh-air duct leads under the large sized furnace, as shown in the basement of the longitudinal section, which is made on the line A B. The heated air enters through short flues into the corridor and directors' or recitation room on the first floor, and warms also the stairway and the corridor on the second floor. The wardrobes on both floors could be partially warmed by opening the doors from the corridors. The recitation room on the second floor is supplied with air from the furnace through a small flue in the partition below, which is built of brick. The four schoolrooms receive this air through a central flue, in which a damper regulates the supply for the first floor.

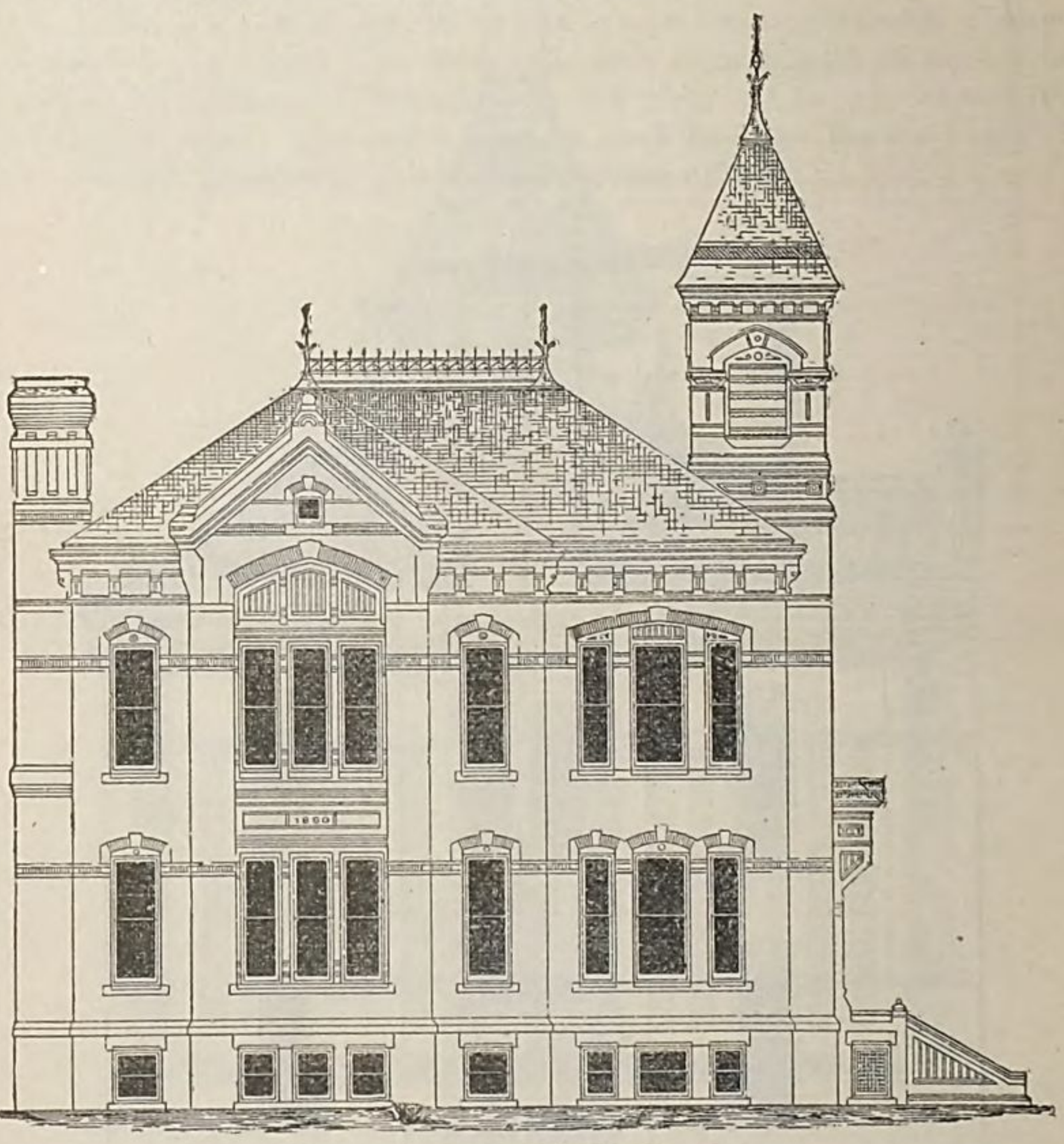

FIG. 6.—Design 12, left side elevation.

The foul air is exhausted from the recitation and school rooms through the perforated iron bases under the windows; passes under the floors between the joists; descends through the partitions between the studding, as indicated in both the longitudinal section and the transverse one for the foul-air gathering room, and is drawn through the privy vaults into the ventilating shaft, which is $3\frac{3}{4}$ by 4 feet on the inside. Here a powerful draft is produced from the air forced into it by the action of the furnace and by the heat supplied by the upright smoke pipe in the shaft.

The construction of the separate privies for girls and boys is shown in the basement plan and in the smaller transverse section. The excrementitious discharges fall from the seats into the vaults beneath, which are each $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep and 17 inches wide. The contents from the urinals in the boys' privy are emptied through a pipe at the foot of the ventilating shaft. The exhausted air, as it passes over these dis-

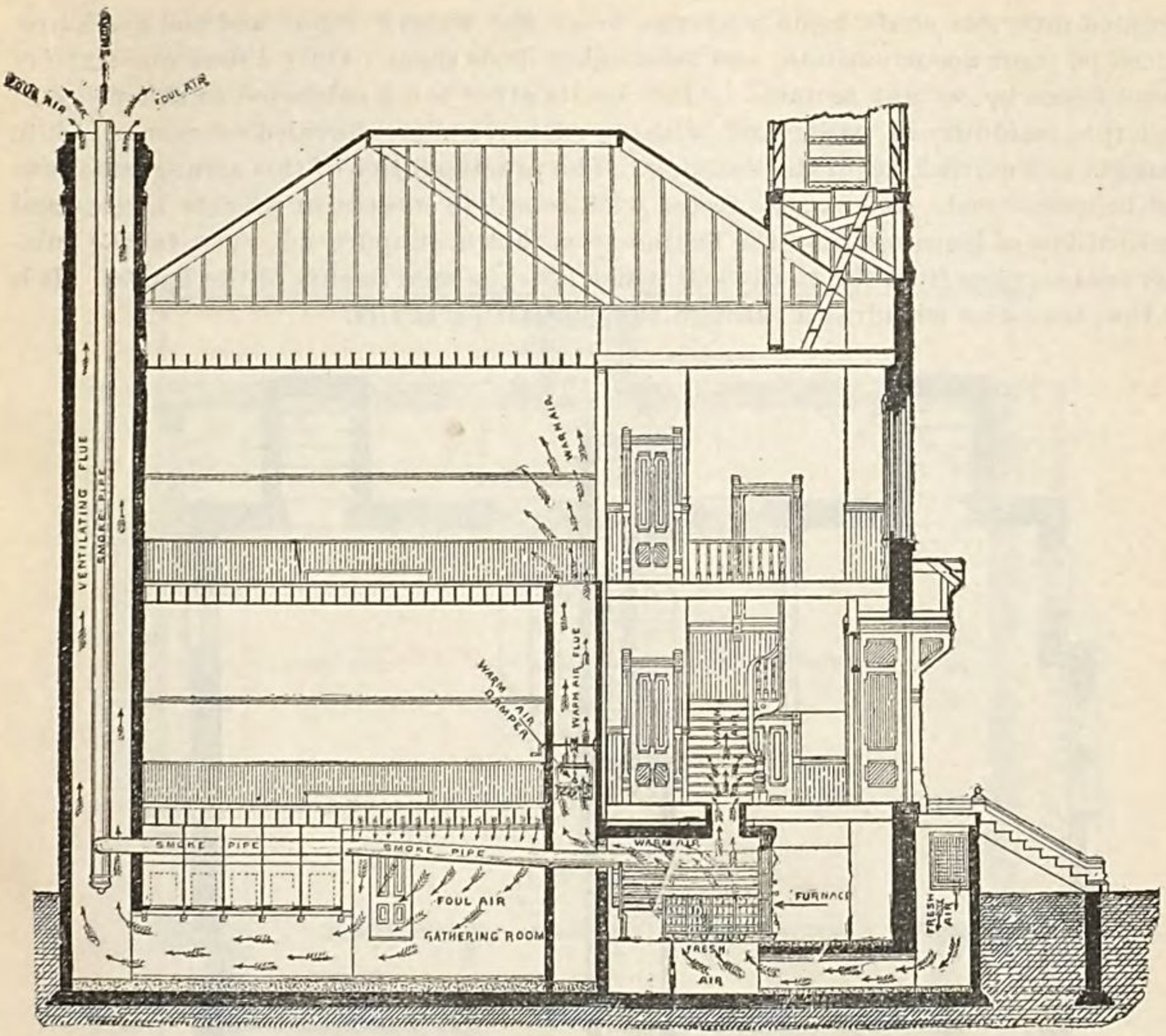

FIG. 7.—Design 12, longitudinal section.

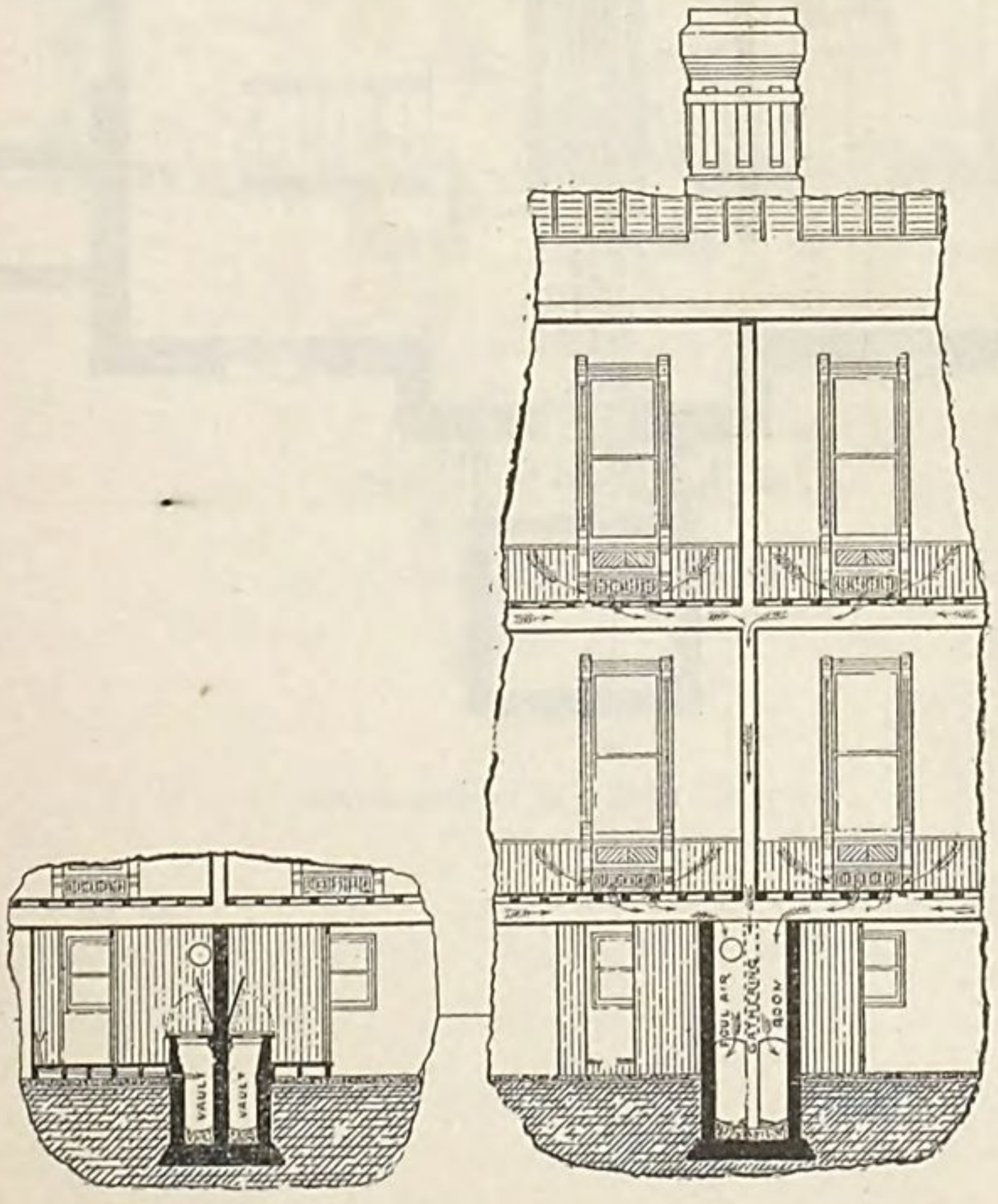

FIG. 8.—Design 12, transverse sections, privy vaults, and foul-air room.

charges into this shaft, rapidly carries away the watery vapor and the gases produced by their decomposition, and thoroughly dries them. Only about one-sixth of these fæces by weight remains in the vaults after being subjected to this process; and this residuum is, easily and with no offensive odor, shoveled occasionally into baskets and carried out of the building. The practicability of this arrangement can not be questioned. It has been tested with complete success in private houses and institutions of learning and the testimony is that no impure air, even in the summer season, rises from the vaults and penetrates the apartments of the houses. It is at that time also withdrawn through the ventilating shafts.

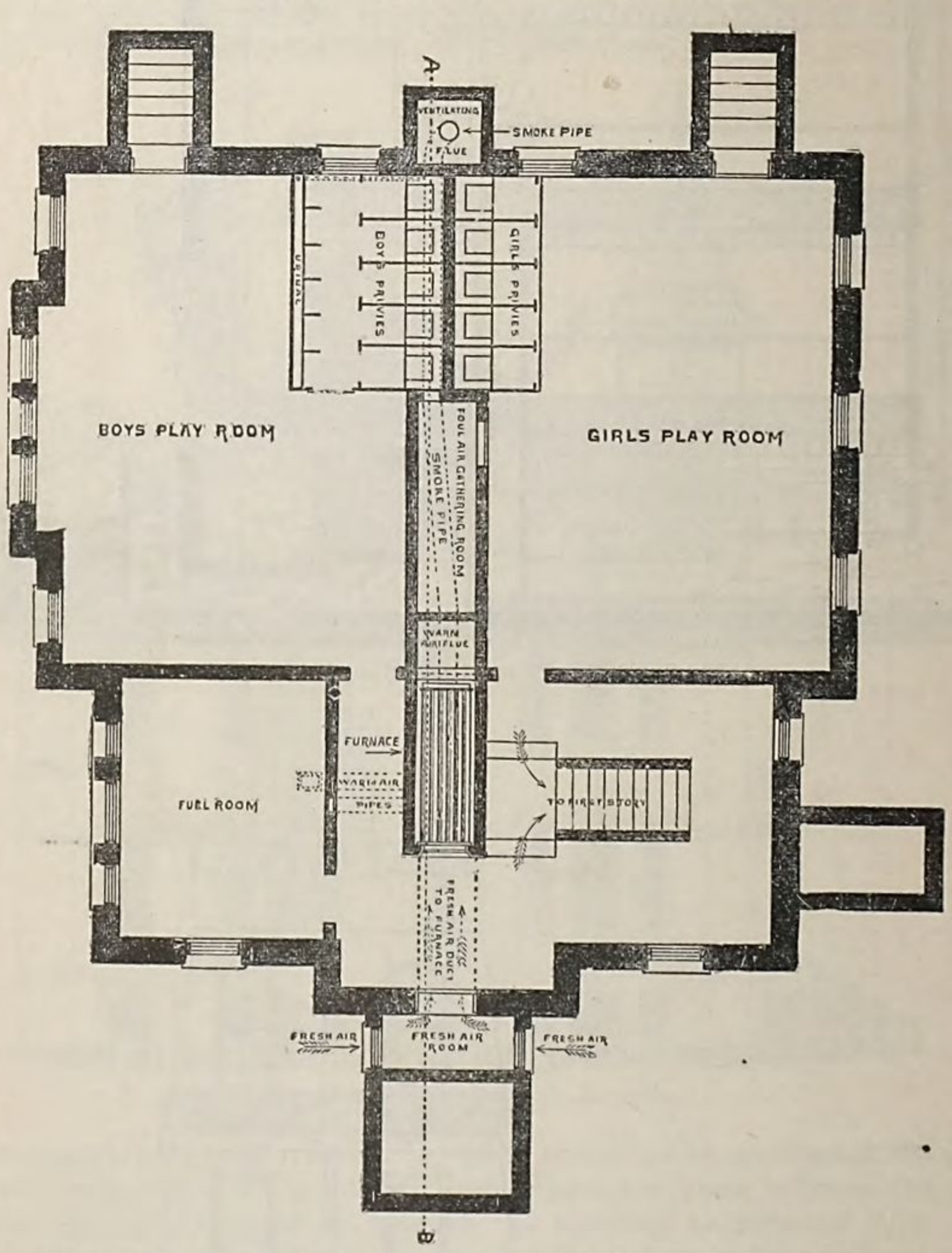

FIG. 9.—Design 12, basement plan.

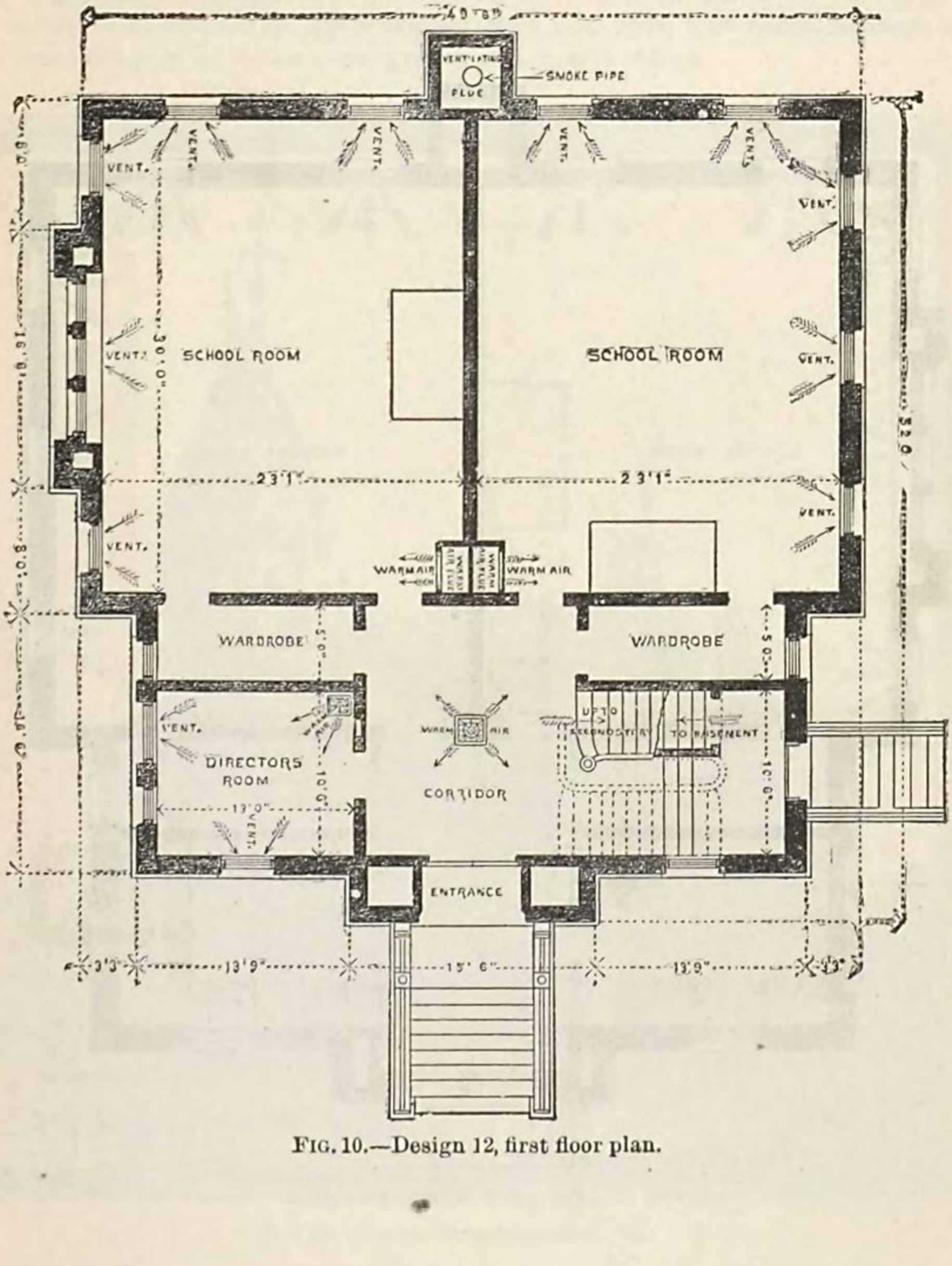

FIG. 10.—Design 12, first floor plan.

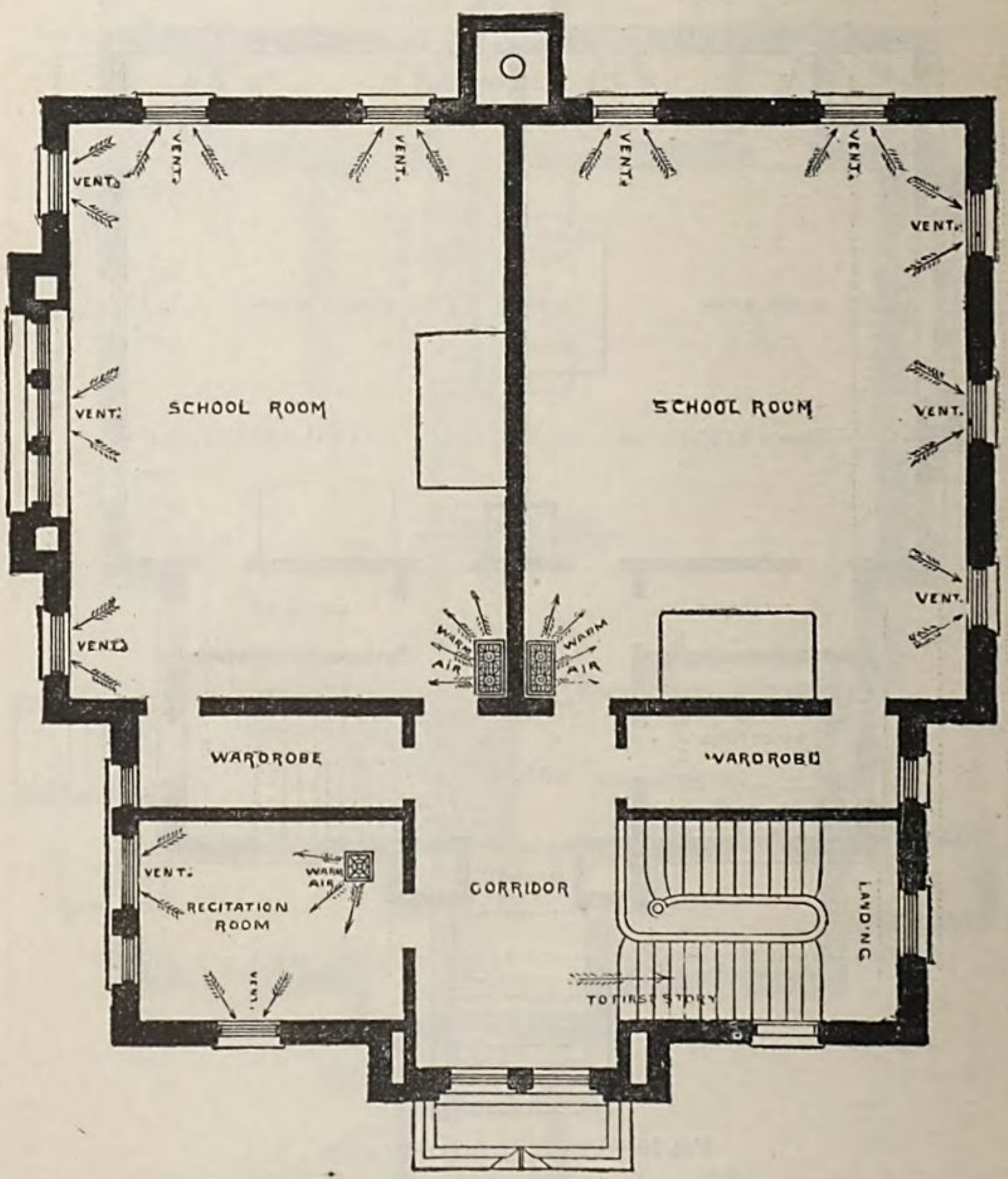

FIG. 11.—Design 12, second floor plan.

Five-room schoolhouse.—The only design with this number of schoolrooms is found below. It was donated by Messrs. Edbrooke and Burnham, architects, of Chicago, Illinois. It was first prepared by them for the school district in the village of River Falls, Wisconsin, where the erection of the building was completed in 1880, at a cost of $12,000. This does not include any of the heating apparatus or the furniture.

It is truly a magnificent structure, striking in appearance, commodious in all its arrangements, and corresponding in very many points to the best recognized principles of schoolhouse architecture. It stands on a slight eminence facing the south. It has separate entrances on the sides for girls and boys, and accommodates in its schoolrooms 275 pupils, in the three grades of a public school.

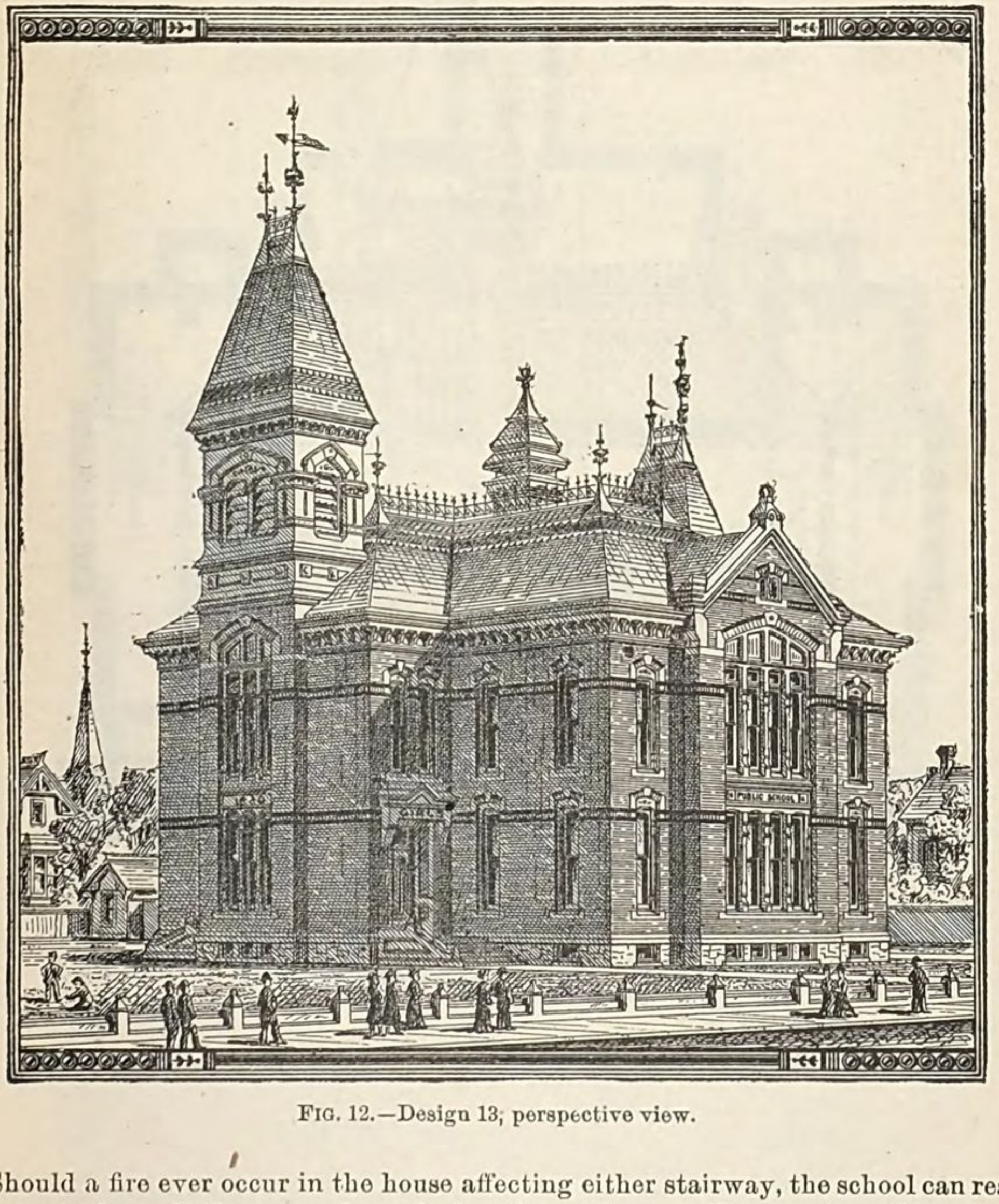

FIG. 12.—Design 13; perspective view.

Should a fire ever occur in the house affecting either stairway, the school can readily escape from all the rooms through the other stairway. Passage is easily made to the different portions of the house through the corridors and the stairways, and to the outbuildings in the rear by means of doors in the back ends of the entrance halls. The front doors could be set, without injury to the architectural appearance of the house, so far within these halls that the steps for entrance could be placed in them under cover. It will be observed that all the doors by which the pupils enter the building and the rooms on the first and second floors open outwards.

The Ruttan system of heating and ventilating is in operation in this building. An

admirable feature of this system is the location of the smoke and ventilating shaft in the center of the house, where its walls are not cooled by exposure to the external air.

The height of the basement story is 8 feet 3 inches in the clear; of the first story, 14 feet 5 inches; and of the second story, 16 feet 4 inches, and 14 feet 3 inches. The height of the tower and other parts of the building are as shown in the perspective and section.

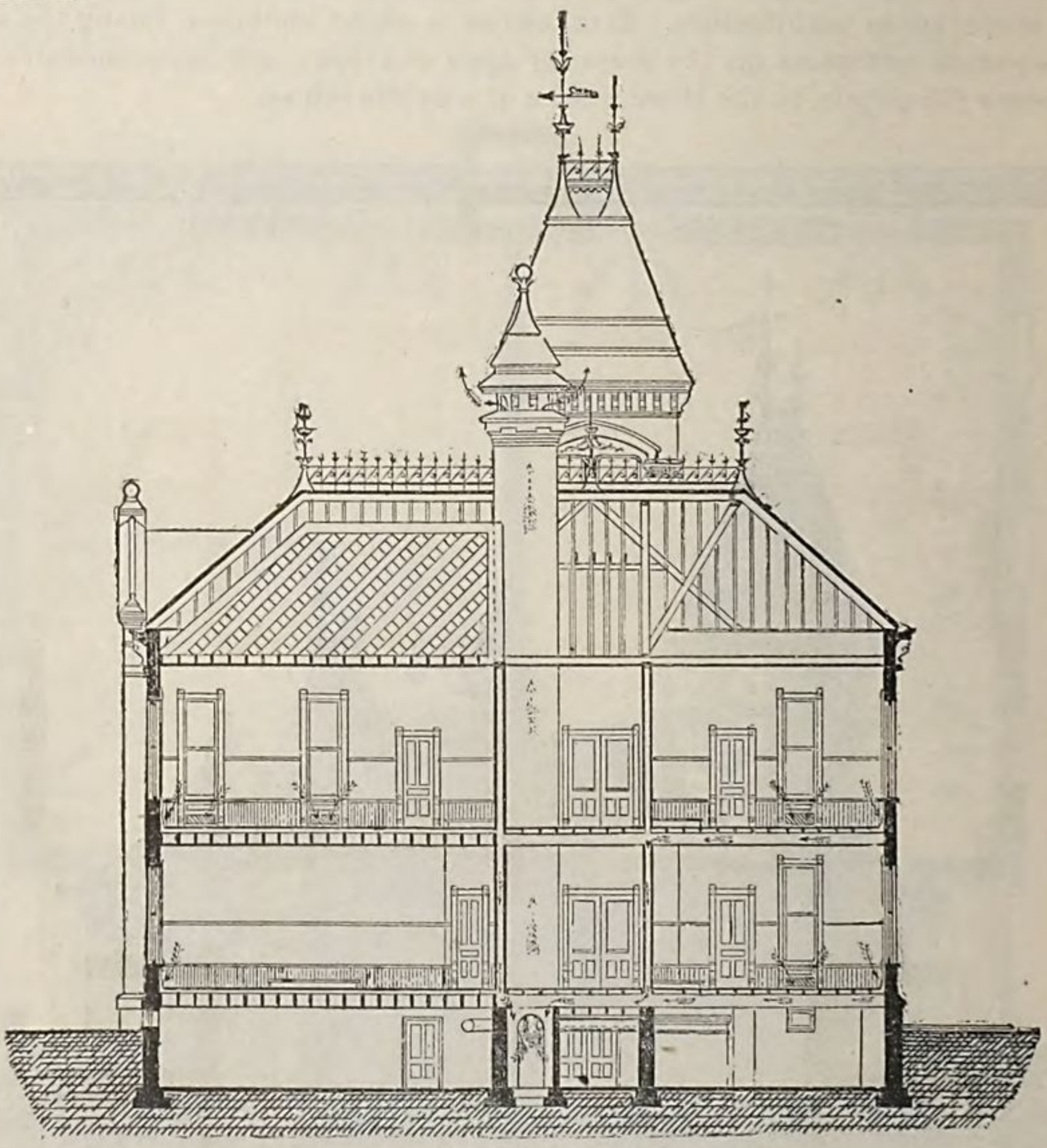

FIG. 13.—Design 13, longitudinal section.

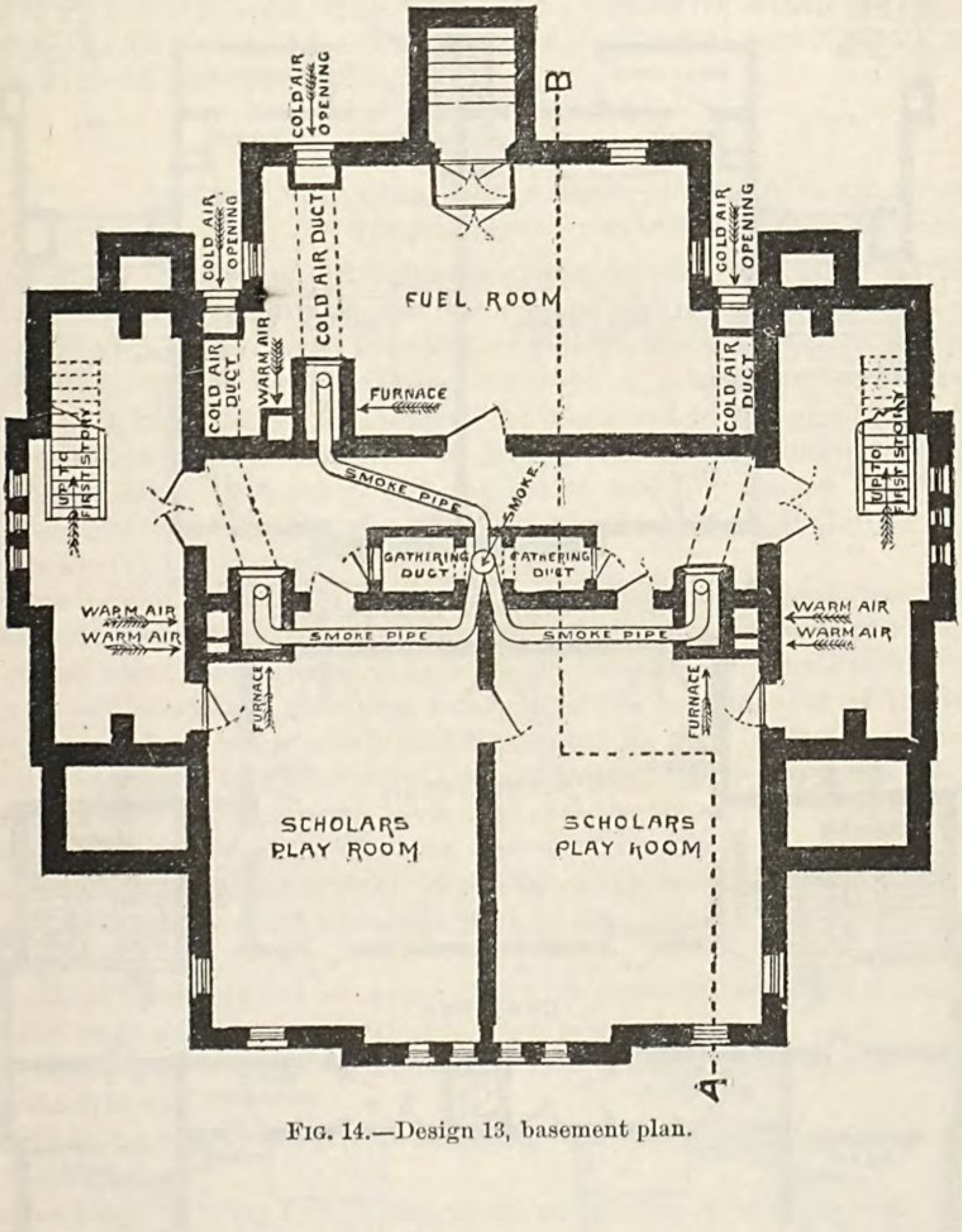

FIG. 14.—Design 13, basement plan.

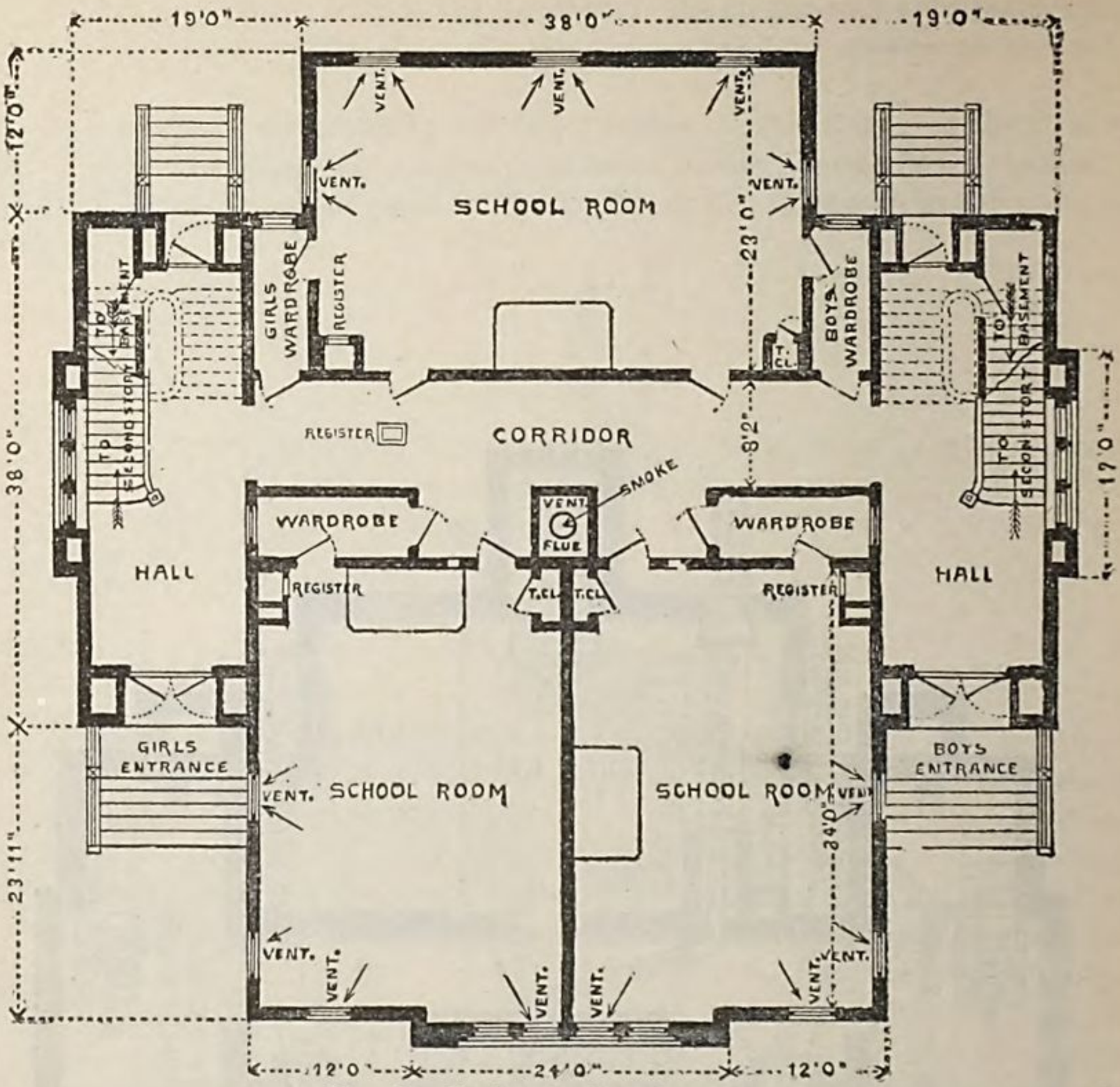

FIG. 15.—Design 13, first-floor plan.

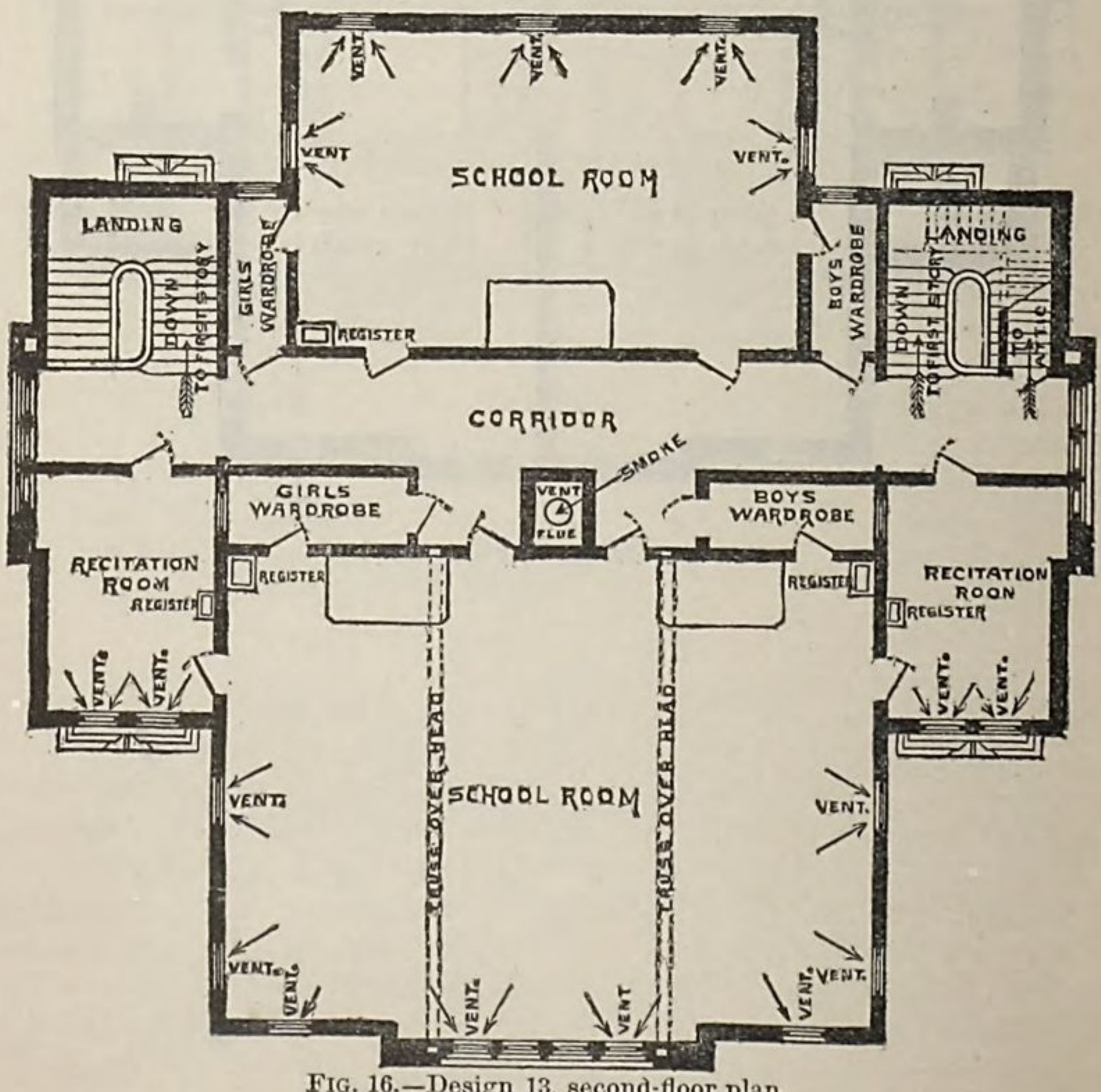

FIG. 16.—Design 13, second-floor plan.

APPENDIX V.

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*DESIGNS FOR SCHOOLHOUSES.—REPRODUCTION OF WORK ISSUED JULY, 1888, SHOWING DESIGNS ACCEPTED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION OF NEW YORK.**

INTRODUCTORY.

STATE OF NEW YORK, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SUPERINTENDENT'S OFFICE, *Albany, June* 15, 1888.

Chapter 675 of the laws of 1887 authorized and directed the State superintendent of public instruction to procure architects' plans and specifications for a series of school buildings ranging in cost from $600 to $10,000, together with full detail working plans and directions for the erection of the same. It also directed him to accompany them with blank forms for builders' contracts and with suggestions in relation to the preparation of the grounds and the arrangement of the building with reference to lighting, heating, ventilating, and the health and convenience of teachers and pupils, and then to publish the whole in convenient form for distribution to trustees and others having use therefor.

Acting under this statute and with a desire to carry out its manifest purpose to supply school officers with the most modern and artistic plans or designs for the erection of low-priced schoolhouses, as well as with the latest and fullest information upon the general and important questions relating to the carrying out of the same, the State Superintendent, by circular dated September 20, 1887, invited the architects of the country to present in competition plans and specifications for school buildings of different sizes and cost, and used a portion of the sum appropriated in said act for the purpose of providing prizes for the most meritorious designs.

Designs were invited for any or all of the following-described buildings:

Frame building to cost not to exceed $600, to accommodate from 20 to 40 pupils in one schoolroom.

Frame building to cost not to exceed $1,000, to accommodate 40 to 60 pupils in one schoolroom, or two if a temporary division can be arranged.

Frame building to cost not to exceed $1,500, to accommodate from 60 to 100 pupils in two schoolrooms.

Frame building to cost not to exceed $2,500, to accommodate from 100 to 120 pupils in two schoolrooms.

Frame or brick building to cost not to exceed $5,000, to accommodate from 120 to 175 pupils in three schoolrooms.

Brick building to cost not to exceed $10,000, to accommodate from 175 to 250 pupils in four schoolrooms, and to have an exhibition hall.

Two prizes were offered in each of the above classes: To the designer of the best arranged and most complete building in classes 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, respectively, the sum of $100, and to the designer of the next best in each of said classes, the sum of $50; to the designer of the best and most complete building in class 6, the sum of $150; and to the designer of the next best, the sum of $75. The right was reserved to make no award in any class where the design presented was not sufficiently meritorious, in the judgment of the committee, for the use indicated.

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* For plans, see page 123 *et seq.*

Ex-State Superintendent William B. Ruggles; Prof. J. W. Kimball, president of the State Teachers' Association; Superintendent Charles E. Gorton, president of the State council of superintendents; Principal E. H. Cook, of the Potsdam Normal School; Dr. George A. Bacon, representing the Associated Academic Principals; Willis R. Hall, school commissioner of the second district of Chenango County, and Mr. Albert W. Fuller, architect, of the city of Albany, accepted my invitation to act as a committee to examine all designs submitted and to award the prizes. The report of the committee is submitted herewith.

It was stipulated that all designs submitted should become the property of the State, with the right to publish meritorious designs which did not receive the highest commendation of the committee, giving designers in all cases proper credit for authorship.

The movement prop osed was undertaken in the hope that it would result in more attractive and comfortable low-priced schoolhouses in this State. For reasons which will appear obvious upon reflection, there has heretofore been but little done in this direction. At the popular centers the buildings are generally fair, and when new ones are erected they are ordinarily very creditable. But outside of the large communities many of the buildings are truly wretched, erected without any idea of architectural effect, and entirely regardless of those matters upon which the health and comfort of the pupils mostly depend. Old buildings, in a shameful state of decay, are continued in use year after year. When new ones are erected it is considered unnecessary or too expensive to employ professional help, and so the best results are not secured. We are endeavoring to arouse and e ducate public sentiment upon the subject. We are telling the people that the health and eyesight and comfort of teachers and pupils are worth caring for. We are striving to impress upon them the fact that neat and wholesome buildings in themselves exert a strong moral and educational influence. It is believed that we can do this most effectively by placing in their hands the most meritorious designs, the latest information, and the best helps. Showing them just how to do a good thing will accomplish more than simply telling them they ought to do it. * * *

A. S. DRAPER,
State Superintendent.

SCHOOLHOUSE GROUNDS.

To the ordinary observer the country schoolhouse presents little that is picturesque or restful to the eye; often more that is suggestive of dilapidation and a general lack of attention to repairs and a proper maintenance of the structure itself. The grounds surrounding the building are entirely neglected, presenting altogether a picture as uninteresting as the country affords.

The house is largely located with reference to the center of population and its accessibility to the children of the district. The topographical features of the site are not especially considered, but a location near the intersection of the country roads or a convenient one on the highway is generally preferred. The structure is without architectural merit, the grounds are worn bare, and the absence of tree and shrub makes still more dreary and uninviting the general aspect of the building and its surroundings.

Is it a wonder that the children go reluctantly to school and run away from the locality as soon as they can; that they are careless as to the condition of their surroundings and of the school property; that they destroy the turf and make bats and shinny-sticks of any isolated fence picket or small tree in the vicinity? They are not allowed to play tops in their sitting rooms at home or marbles on their dining-room tables. Can the children be taught to respect, take an interest in, or care for a lawn, tree, or shrub, if introduced as an embellishment to the immediate surroundings of a country schoolhouse, when such a treatment of a portion of the grounds would seem to conflict with the impetuosity of their movements or their rights as players of shinny, baseball and marbles?

This result has been accomplished in cities where the population is more dense, and occasionally in the country, by affording ample opportunity and space for such games at a point not too remote from the school building and restricting the children to this locality for such sports.

It is evident that it is impossible to maintain a lawn or turf where shinny, marbles, baseball, and similar games are permitted. On the other hand, we should be loath to sacrifice the pleasure and health of our children for a bit of lawn or the pleasing effect of a few shade trees. Can these conflicting elements be harmonized? Can we let the children play and still have some grass and shade and inviting grounds around our country schoolhouses? Where children and grown people as well find neglect and want of care the rule, they are apt to reciprocate in kind, and become careless. One is inclined to be a little more circumspect in his outward behavior, surrounded by objects of value and comfort at home, than on a barn floor. A wholesome restraint is educational and beneficial in its effects. If ample facility is afforded the children for games and they are not permitted the use of that portion of the grounds improved, the teachers could soon interest them and teach them to respect the locality.

If in the spring and fall an arbor day was selected for the planting of such material as might be selected for the purpose, and the children given a holiday to assist in the work, an interest in the condition and growth of the trees would soon be developed that would not be restricted to the schoolhouse grounds, but extend to the wayside and the homes of the children. How can this be satisfactorily accomplished and how are we to go to work to obtain this result? In a general way as follows:

Select a proper site, build a commodious, comfortable, and neat structure, surround it by grounds of sufficient size to offer some opportunity for embellishment, apart from the utilitarian requirements of the children, and afford them ample space for an unlimited indulgence in games away from the immediate surroundings of the schoolhouse. The selection of a site is vital to picturesque effect, and a sufficiency of ground essential to the development of such a scheme. The exposure of the schoolhouse with reference to the sun and the prevailing winter winds is an important factor tending to the comfort of the children, and the topographical features of the site are equally important elements in solving economically the questions of drainage and the treatment of the grounds.

Select a site, therefore, that is convenient to the majority of the children attending school, one somewhat retired and sufficiently removed from the street or highway to afford a sense of seclusion and freedom from noise. The ground should be elevated and removed from unsanitary influences or surroundings. Face the house to get plenty of sun, and locate the site, if possible, with reference to the protection afforded by a natural forest growth on the north and west exposures, and when this can not be secured protect this side by evergreen planting. Give protection from the summer sun by detached grouping of deciduous trees sufficiently near to afford shade. Set apart an ample space for the children's playground at a convenient distance on the east or west side. Make the approaches to the building of ample width to facilitate a rapid depletion of the grounds in front, and treat this exposure simply as a lawn, relieved by detached grouping of trees or shrubbery, as the extent of the lawn surface may determine.

The necessary outbuildings should be properly screened with evergreens. The location, exposure, and topography will determine the plan of treatment, so that an arbitrary ground plan would not be applicable in every case. Suitable evergreens for protective screens or for shutting out objectionable features or views can be generally secured in the country where the white pine, Norway spruce, hemlock, and arbor-vitæ are indigenous to the locality; and deciduous trees, such as maples, oaks, ash, beech, and dogwood, with many desirable native shrubs, can often be found among the second growth on the hillsides, the open borders of woods, or along neglected fence lines. Unless an intelligent supervision, however, is given to the selection and removal of such specimens of native growth, the result of such planting

is usually a failure. Nursery-grown stock is cheaper, and the immediate results are more satisfactory.

Generally speaking, both evergreen and deciduous planting meets with better success in the spring than in the fall. Especially is this the case when the holes are dug in the fall, filled with good loamy soil, and this allowed to become mellow before planting the following spring. A better and choicer selection of planting material can, of course, be obtained from the nursery, and where this is resorted to a selection can be obtained differing essentially from the field or native stock in form and color, thus overcoming the objection to a repetition or monotony of planting. Generally, nurserymen of established reputation are willing to select such material as would be desirable when sufficient data are furnished them bearing upon the subjects of climate, exposure, character of soil, and the scope of treatment.

These suggestions, though somewhat vague, and not especially detailed in character, it is hoped will tend to awaken a spirit of reform and improvement, so far as the condition and treatment of suburban and country schoolhouse grounds are concerned.—*Wm. S. Egerton.*

School Outbuildings.

LOCATION.

The schoolhouse should, if possible, be so located that there shall be a yard in the rear, divided by a tight fence 7 feet high extending from the house to the rear line of the school lot. The laws of the State, as well as all rules of propriety and decency, require that every schoolhouse shall have an entirely separate outbuilding for each sex. It is usually far better and safer that they should not be under the schoolhouse roof. In addition to the separating fence each outbuilding should be inclosed by a high tight fence, the gates of which are kept closed when school is not in session.

If possible, let each outbuilding be connected with the schoolhouse by a covered walk with latticed sides as a protection to the children in stormy weather. (*See* Fig. 1.)

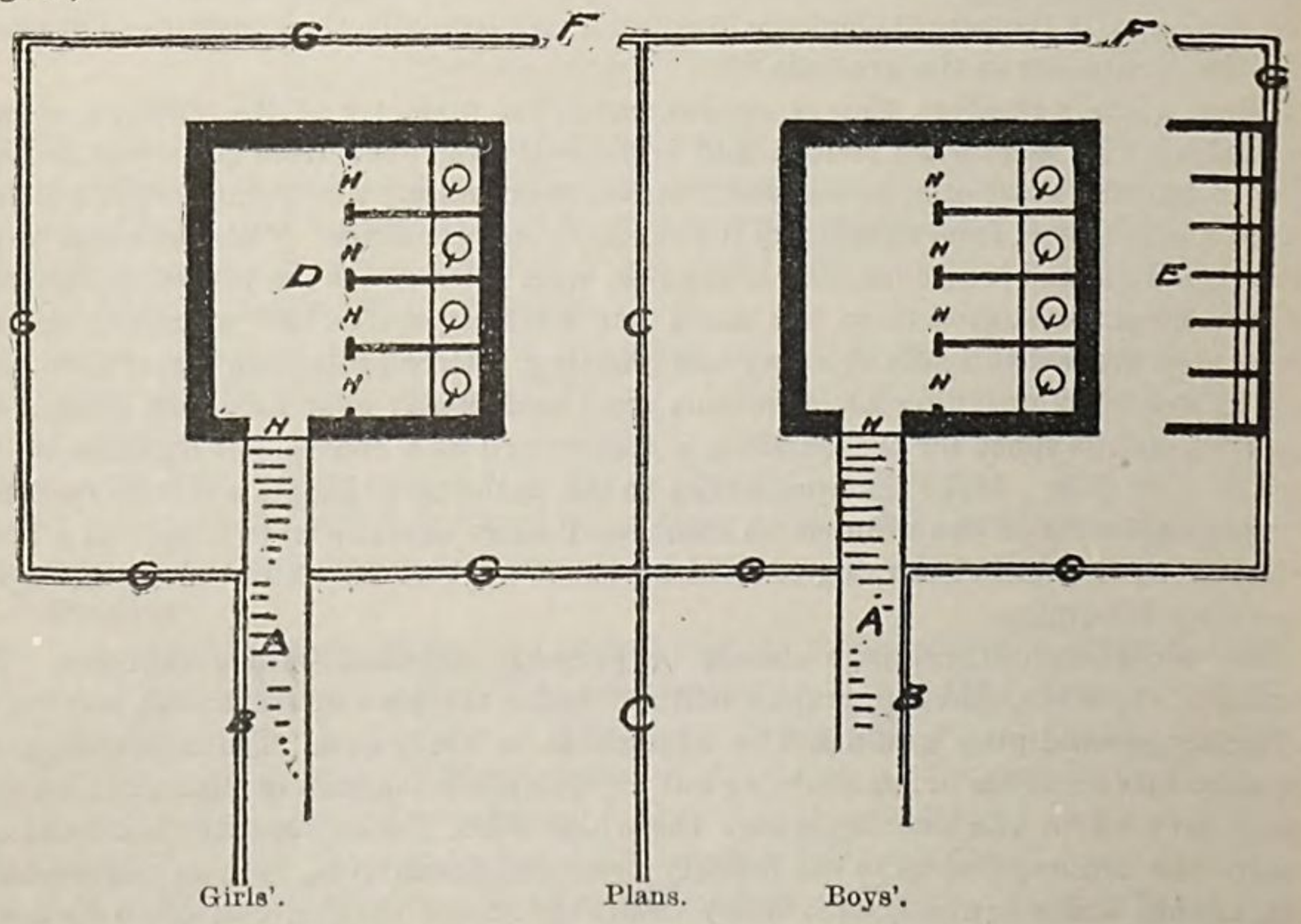
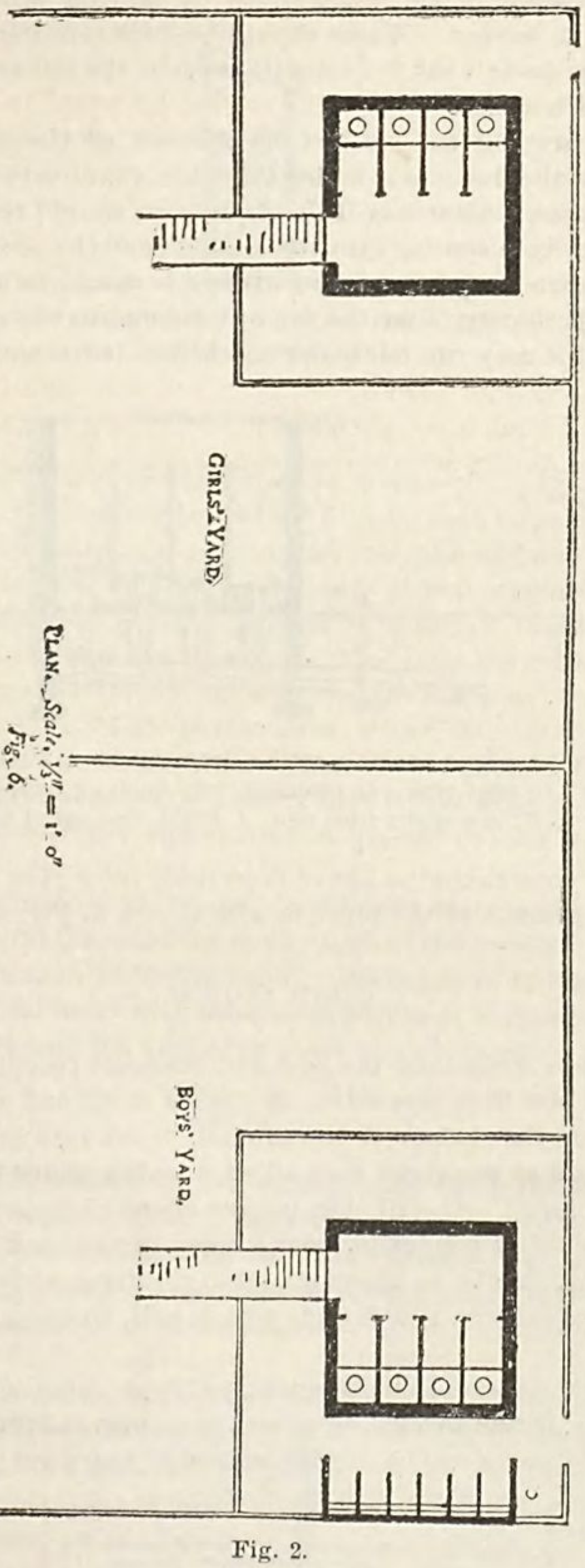


FIG. 1.—*A*, covered walk; *B*, lattice fence; *C*, tight fence 7 feet high; *D*, closets, each in separate compartment; *E*, urinals under cover and separated by partitions; *F*, gates for removal of contents or receptacles; *G*, board fence; *H*, doors; *I*, closet seats.

For plan for disconnected outbuildings and yards, see Fig. 2.



PLAN.—Scale, 1/32" = 1' 0"

Fig. 6.

Fig. 2.

RECEPTACLES BENEATH THE BUILDINGS.

Vaults are uncleanly, and the gases which they generate pollute the air, and are not only offensive, but dangerous. Besides, by infiltration through the soil, the contents have, in numerous instances, reached wells, and thus spread fatal diseases. Vaults should never be tolerated. Where connection can be made with a sewer, and a supply of water can be had, the best plan is to lay a 6-inch iron drain-pipe below the reach of frost, beneath the seats of the closet, extending the whole length of the building. Let an upright pipe of 4-inch iron be connected with the above-men-

tioned main, and extend upward and connect with an enameled iron hopper. Water is brought from the cellar of the schoolhouse by an iron pipe which extends up to the top of the bowl or hopper. Water should be kept running during the time when the closets are liable to be used. This will prevent the adherence of any substance to the surface of the bowls.

The iron leader carrying the water from the roof of the closets should enter the upper end or head of the drain pipe under the seats, that every rain may aid in washing out the sewer pipes. All joints of the drain pipe should be leaded, and a trap set to prevent any odors from coming into the closets from the sewers. This trap should be ventilated, as shown in Fig. 2. The water pipe should be so laid that there shall be a good descent all the way from the top of the bowl to the cellar drain, that when the water is shut off it may run back and out before it freezes.

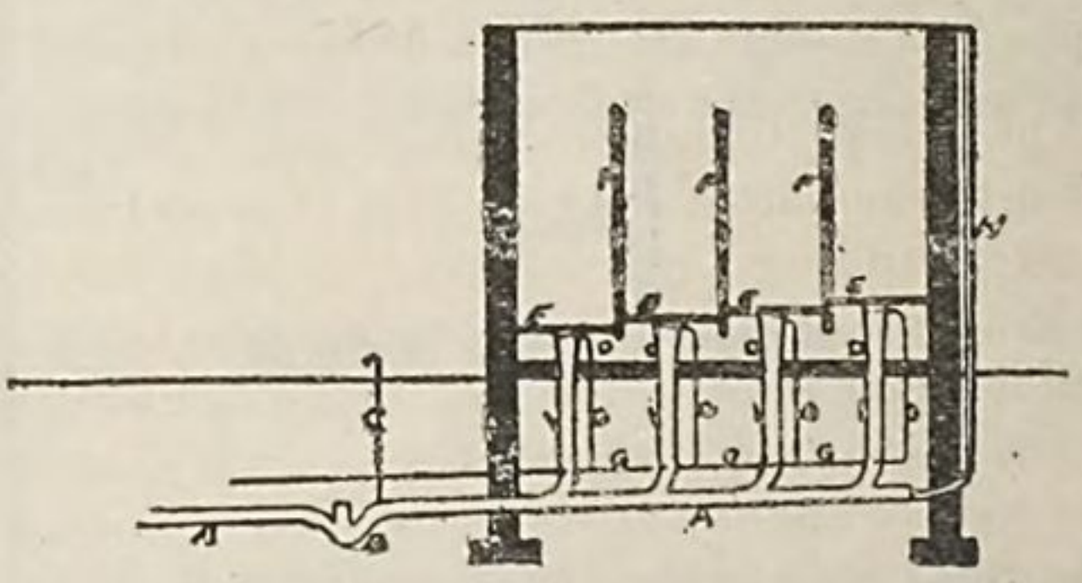


FIG. 3.—Section of closet showing arrangement for drain system. *A*, 6-inch iron drain connecting with sewer; *B*, trap; *C*, vent pipe; *D*, enameled iron flushing hopper; *E*, seats; *F*, partitions; *G*, water supply pipes; *H*, iron leader from roof; *I*, 4-inch iron outlet pipe.

When closets are constructed as above described, they give no trouble, even in the winter. The arrangement of the pipes is also shown in Fig. 2.

EARTH CLOSETS.

When a sewer is not accessible, the best and cheapest receptacle is the earth closet. Construct a plank box 32 inches wide, 18 inches deep, and as long as the building. This may be set upon the surface of the ground, or let into the ground 6 or 8 inches. It should be so placed as to extend only about 2 inches under the riser (front support of the seats in the closet). It will then project about 15 inches back of the building; cover this projection with a slanting door hinged to the back of the building.

Dry earth or ashes should be thrown in daily. Plant several elm or willow trees near the building, to take up the liquids which will, to some extent, pass out of the box into the soil.

During the winter salt should be frequently thrown into the box to prevent the contents from becoming frozen to such an extent as to prevent removal. By raising the lid in the rear the contents can be readily shoveled into a cart or wagon. Gardeners will gladly remove the contents without charge.

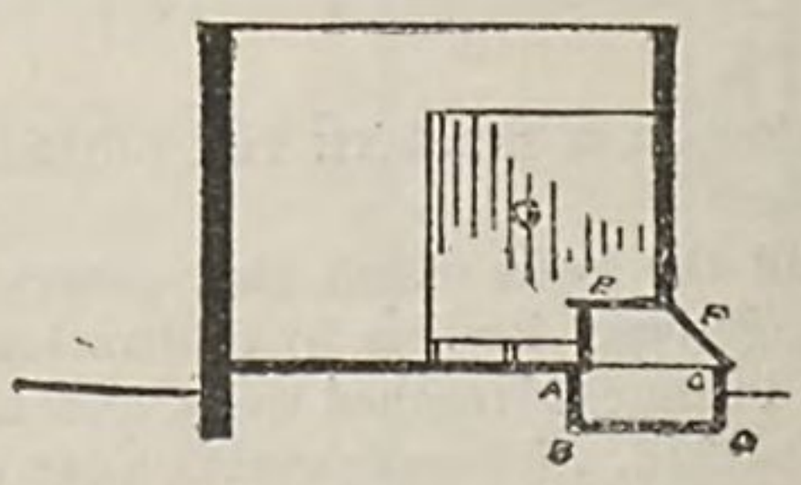


FIG. 4.—Section of earth closet. *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, box used as receptacle; *E*, seat; *F*, hinged lid, used in removal of contents; *G*, compartment partition.

The above arrangement is much cheaper than a vault, is safe, and is easily managed at small expense. (See Fig. 5.)

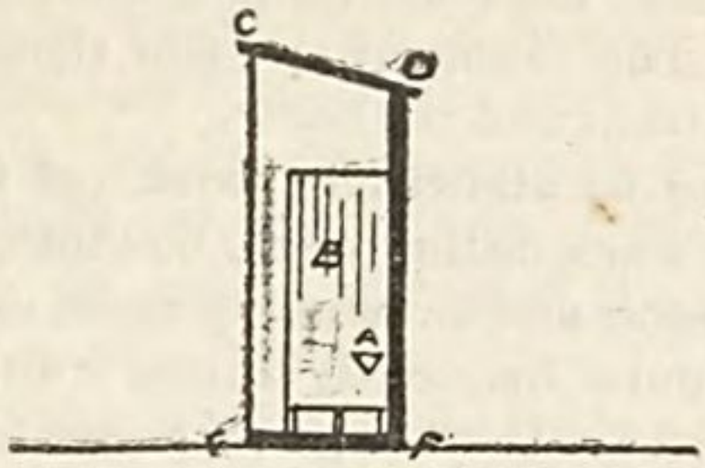


FIG. 5.—Section of urinal shed. *A*, end of urinal; *B*, partition; *C*, *D*, *E*, *F*, urinal shed with compartment partitions.

CLOSET BUILDINGS.

These are best built of brick, though wood is more commonly used. They should always be partitioned into compartments (see Fig. 1), each large enough for only one person. Each of the two buildings, required by law, should have three or more compartments, though in the case of a very small school two compartments may be sufficient. For every schoolroom seating forty or fifty pupils there should be at least two compartments in the closet for each sex. The seats should be large enough for only one person; the compartments or sections should not be more than 2 feet 2 inches wide. Each should have a separate door, which can be closed by the pupils, but can not be fastened on either side. These doors should be locked as soon as school closes at night and opened only a short time before school begins in the morning. The partitions between the compartments should extend from the floor to the roof. (See Fig. 3.)

The distance from the front of the closed door to the seat should be 3 feet. Let the seats be graduated in height, according to the ages of the pupils. For the youngest, seats should be not more than 10 inches high. The inside of the riser, supporting the front of the seat, should be lined with zinc, or it will soon become saturated and very offensive. It is folly to slant the seat or to place any obstruction above it.

URINALS.

One of the most prolific causes of the outrageously filthy condition of boys' outbuildings is the lack of proper urinals. These should always be constructed of some nonabsorbing material, as enameled iron, for which boards lined with zinc are a fair substitute. They must be under shelter, and to secure proper privacy there is here also the same need of partitions as in the closets. There should be more urinals than closet compartments.

In case of closets connected with a sewer, as previously described, the partition of the closets extends back about 30 inches, and the roof is continued back sufficiently to cover them. The urinals are here made of enameled iron, the lowest point of each being at its center; *i. e.*, they are shaped like an elongated hopper. An inch lead pipe leads down from the lowest point and enters the upright drain pipe under each seat. The openings from the bottom of the urinals should be covered by a piece of coarse brass wire cloth, to prevent stoppage by any solid substance thrown therein. In summer it is well to keep on the wire screen several pieces of copperas as a disinfectant. All boards liable to become saturated with the liquids should be covered with zinc. (See Fig. 6.)

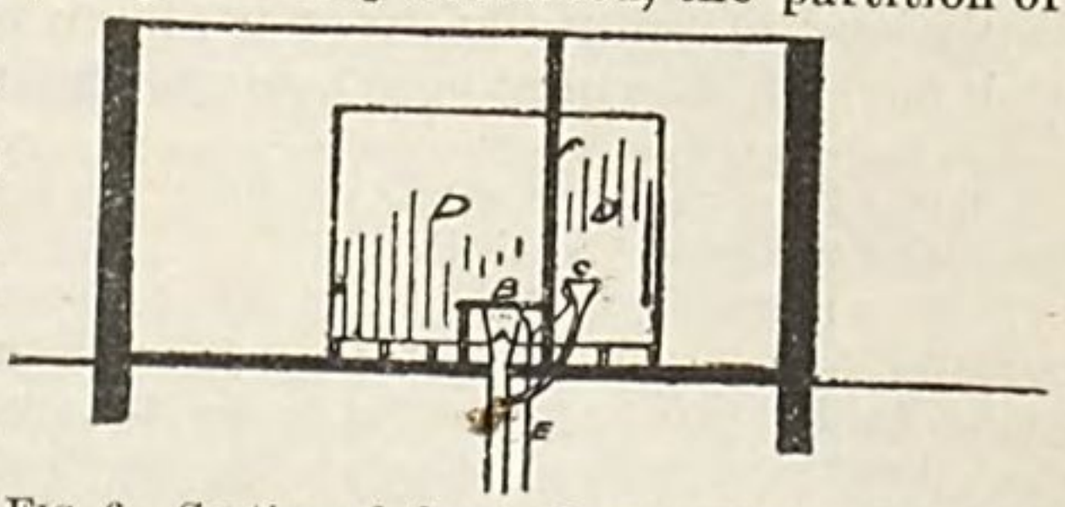


FIG. 6.—Section of closet, showing how urinal may be drained into outlet of bowl. *A*, hopper; *B*, seat; *C*, urinal; *D*, compartment partitions; *E*, water supply pipe; *F*, partitions.

In case of earth closets, let properly covered and partitioned urinals be built in the rear of the closet next to the inclosing fence. A drain should be so arranged as to conduct the liquids into the soil for some considerable distance, there to be appropriated by trees and grass. The joints of the tile should not be cemented. The building should be painted within and without.

While vaults ought never to be allowed to exist, yet they may be rendered more tolerable by pouring in, every week during warm weather, a pail of water containing four pounds of dissolved copperas and an ounce of crude carbolic acid. This solution should be poured into drains quite frequently during warm weather.

The trustees, having put the outbuildings in proper condition, should hold the teacher to a strict accountability for their preservation. The first soiling or pencil marking must be removed immediately, as it is far easier to keep closets scrupulously clean than in a half-cleanly condition.

The law requiring separate closets for each sex,* and that they shall be neat and clean, is explicit, and the penalty for its violation severe. If the closets are properly constructed, are made neat and cleanly, and are inspected daily by a teacher who is determined to succeed in this matter, and who can create a proper sentiment among the pupils, the great disgrace of filthy and obscene outbuildings will speedily disappear from our school grounds.—*H. R. Sanford.*

VENTILATION.

There is no one thing connected with the economies of school life that is worth so much and costs so little as proper ventilation. Many schools are pronounced inferior (and rightly so), and many teachers oftentimes fail in the proper education of such schools, because the physical conditions upon which all mental development is based are wanting. Nothing adds more to the enjoyment of life, nothing is more absolutely necessary for mental work than pure air and an abundance of it. A schoolroom fitted for children to occupy must have two essential provisions. There must be an adequate supply of pure, warm air, and the foul air must be removed in order to give place to the pure air. This must be done in such a manner as to prevent all drafts that will endanger the lives of the children. Without stopping to give reasons for certain necessary arrangements, it is proposed to suggest simple plans:

In building an ordinary single-room district schoolhouse, a brick flue should be constructed, at least 2 by 3 feet in the clear; this flue should contain within it an 8-inch heavy iron pipe, placed in the center and extending fully 2 feet above the top of the brick flue; the brick flue should extend down into the basement, and directly under the floor should be connected by means of pipes with two or more registers placed in opposite parts of the room directly in the floor, being careful not to place them under the seats. These registers should be at least 16 by 20 inches, and after the fire is built in the morning should always be open. When the fire has been burning sufficiently long to warm the iron pipe, there will be an upward current of air in the brick flue, which will at once begin to exhaust the vitiated air of the schoolroom.

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*Chapter 538 of the Laws of 1887, entitled "An act in relation to health and decency in the school districts of this State," is as follows:

"SECTION 1. From and after the first day of September, 1887, the board of education, or the trustee or trustees having supervision over any school district of this State, shall provide suitable and convenient water-closets or privies for each of the schools under their charge, at least two in number, which shall be entirely separated each from the other, and having separate means of access, and the approaches thereto shall be separated by a substantial close fence not less than seven feet in height. It shall be the duty of the officers aforesaid to keep the same in a clean and wholesome condition, and a failure to comply with the provisions of this act on the part of the trustees shall be sufficient grounds for removal from office, and for withholding from the district any share of the public moneys of the State. Any expense incurred by the trustees aforesaid in carrying out the requirements of this act shall be a charge upon the district, when such expense shall have been approved by the school commissioner of the district within which the school district is located; and a tax may be levied therefor without a vote of the district."

To provide fresh air, if an ordinary stove is used, an opening can be made directly under the center of the stove, about 12 by 16 inches, with a pipe fitted to this, running into the basement and connected with the outside; never to be left opening into the cellar. This pipe, or wooden box, if preferred, should contain a damper, which may be closed at night, and by means of which the supply of fresh air may be regulated, depending on the wind and temperature. This pipe under the stove should extend to within 4 inches of the bottom of the stove, and should be fitted with a flange running over the entire bottom of the stove and projecting 2 inches beyond on both sides, with an edge turned up about 3 inches, so as to give an upward direction to the air as it becomes heated by the bottom and sides of the stoves.

When a furnace is used, a much better supply of heated air can always be furnished, but the fresh-air supply should always be connected with the outside, and never be taken from the cellar or schoolroom itself, as the air from either of these places would endanger the health of the occupants.

The principles involved in the foregoing are the same to be used in a building of two, four, six, eight rooms, or of any size whatever. They may be briefly enunciated as follows:

1. Two hundred cubic feet of air should be allowed for each scholar, provided the air is changed continuously.*
2. The foul air should be taken out of the rooms at or near the floor.
3. The ventilating flue should be of sufficient capacity to take out the foul air.
4. The ventilating flues should always be heated to be of any value in exhausting air.
5. The supply of fresh air must be warmed, and the amount of fresh air must be sufficient to compensate for that taken out by the foul-air shaft.

SUGGESTIONS.

1. When furnaces or indirect steam is used in the construction of new buildings, the warm fresh air in the schoolrooms should be admitted above the children's heads. In the cloakroom or hallway there should be one or two registers placed in the floor for the purpose of drying and warming feet and clothes; but unless absolutely necessary, these should never be placed in the floor of the schoolroom, as there is nothing more disagreeable than the odor of drying boots and clothes in a room used for daily school work.
2. If school trustees, parents, and teachers really understood how much more mental work can be done in a schoolroom properly supplied with fresh warm air than in a room where the air has become vitiated and unfit to breathe, a month would not elapse before some adequate provision would be made in this direction.
3. It is estimated by competent authorities who have gathered the statistics, that vitiated air in the houses of our citizens causes 40 per cent. of the deaths annually occurring.
4. Every schoolroom should be provided with a series of the lime-water bottles, showing the per cent. of vitiated air and determining when it is dangerous. A series of such bottles are inexpensive, and at the request of the Association of New York State School Commissioners have been prepared and may be obtained by applying to C. W. Bardeen, of Syracuse.

I hope that these suggestions may prove of value to the teachers and school trustees of our State, and trust that they may be the means of urging upon those in authority the necessity of furnishing our children with that which they need in order to do good work, and which may be had freely at slight expense.—*E. H. Cook.*

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*According to the recommendation of the State Board of Health of New York.

LIGHT AND EYESIGHT.

Convincing arguments, supported by statistics, have been advanced by eminent writers, directing attention to the injurious influences of too much school work and insufficiently lighted schoolrooms upon the acuteness of vision, but unfortunately little attention has been given to remedying an evil which has incapacitated thousands of children for the comfortable enjoyment of one of the most important of the senses. Properly lighted schoolrooms promote a healthy influence upon the faculty of visual application. Good light is indispensably necessary for the comfortable exercise of the power of vision, and any architectural interference with the manner of introduction and distribution of the same is injurious to the eye and prejudicial to health. It is during the period of school years that the eyes of children are prone to lose their acuteness, thereby becoming more susceptible to influences tending to a development of refractive disturbances. The golden rule for the guidance of teachers is to refrain from overburdening the eyes with school work requiring long and close application, but the observance of this rule is of little consequence, if, in the architectural design of school buildings, the fact that good light is essential to acute vision and favorable to good health is overlooked. Light is one of the abundant gifts of God to man; its presence is essential to the faculty of seeing; it is an important factor for the preservation of vision, and it is a pity that, by the abuse of its virtues, a single eye should be robbed of its normal acuteness. The wrong done to children by exacting proficiency in a curriculum of high standard, under the injurious influences of too much school work and a faulty arrangement of light-supply, can no longer be ascribed to ignorance on the part of the teacher, or a want of the knowledge of construction on the part of the architect; and if, in the future, the much needed reform of less school work, aided by a proper and well-regulated supply of light, be inaugurated, it will do much to lessen the large percentage of refractive errors acquired during the period of school life. The quantity of light introduced into schoolrooms should be of sufficient strength to fully stimulate the faculty of vision. If necessary, space and symmetry of schoolrooms should be sacrificed to architectural plans best calculated to afford such light that will make the visual act a pleasure and not a burden. Methods adopted for the introduction of light in school buildings should be perfected to a degree admitting of complete control of the quantity required and the regulation of the same. Special attention should be given to the location and size of windows, the quality of glass, and the mounting of the same in a manner that will not interfere with the transmission of light by the reflection of shadows. Low windows should be condemned, and the windows covered by hangings or shades that will admit of controlling the light, so that the supply may be introduced from above and not from below. The appliances by which light is admitted and tempered should, in color, be of neutral tint, so as to protect the eyes from the annoyance of reflecting effect. Light should not be so sparingly admitted as to be insufficient for the purposes required, nor too strong to be trying or dazzling to the eyes.

The source of light-supply in school buildings should admit of being so governed as not to come from opposite directions. Seats and desks should be so arranged that the quantity of light required should come from above and from the left side. Plate glass of equal density, clear and free from flaws and irregularities, is best calculated for the free transmission of light. The custom of introducing windows of tinted or cathedral glass may add to the appearance of school buildings, but possesses the disadvantages of diminishing the intensity of light and altering the equality of its elements. The walls and ceilings of schoolrooms should be tinted in colors, preventing any glaring effect, and, under all circumstances, the effect of light upon the eye should be soft, free from glare, and of sufficient strength to see with clearness and to admit of study with comfort.—*Herman Bendell, M. D.*

Blackboards.

EXTENT.

Blackboards should extend entirely around every schoolroom. It is better that the top should be 6½ feet from the floor, to enable the teacher to place work on the blackboard to remain from day to day. For the use of the young children the boards should reach to within about 2 feet from the floor. This will give a vertical width of blackboard surface of about 54 inches.

MATERIAL.

Slate boards have frequently seams, are noisy, and, from the expense, schools fitted with stone boards usually have a very inadequate supply.

Wooden boards are noisy and generally very unsatisfactory.

Neither slated plaster walls nor blackboard plastic materials seem to wear well.

Paper boards have been in use for nearly 20 years, and when properly constructed, are as durable as the walls themselves, and delight all who use them.

HOW TO MAKE PAPER BLACKBOARDS.

When a new building is to be erected, let the walls be plastered in the usual manner, except that the final coat, instead of being composed only of lime-putty and plaster of Paris should contain also sufficient good sharp sand to make a very hard surface, and it must be troweled till *perfectly* smooth.

When the plaster is fully dry, it is ready for the paper. Select manilla paper of medium thickness, not thick, having a good, smooth, calendered surface. Spread the paper cut to the appropriate size on a clean floor, and wet it with cold water, using a clean whitewash brush; apply good cooked flour paste (cold); lay the paper on the wall and smooth it down with a brush, as in ordinary paper-hanging. A soft cloth can be used instead of a brush. Nail a neat molding around the edge.

When dry, apply any *good* slating, and the next day rub the slating with fine sandpaper. Apply two or three coats in the same manner, rubbing each coat as the first. If the slating is of good quality, the boards, though constantly used, will not need to be reslated within 2 or 3 years. It is probably economy to apply three or four coatings of slating at first, as it will prove far more durable. Old cement boards or slated walls, if they are reasonably solid, may be cheaply converted into good boards by first filling smoothly any cracks and holes by a mixture of lime-putty and plaster of Paris, and then applying paper, as described above. Paper will not adhere to thick coats of whitewash. If old walls are loose and shaky they should be replaced by new ones and then papered, as in new walls.

Boards should not be washed, but can be well cleaned with a piece of dry flannel.

If the erasers are made of a material which will hold the dust, and they are dusted every day by striking them against a board out of doors, there will not be very much annoyance from crayon dust.—*H. R. Sanford.*

School Desks.

Double desks cause the spread of vermin and disease, and the contamination of the pure, by close relationship with immoral seat-mates; the amount of genuine study is lessened, and the need of disclipine is increased by children sitting together at the same desk. The best schools have generally adopted single desks, and no double desks ought to be purchased.

In the matter of adaptation to the needs of the schoolroom, comfort and appearance, the best school furniture now leaves little to be desired, and the best will, in the end, be found the cheapest.

Great care should be exercised to adapt the height of seats and desks to the size of the children who are to occupy them.—*H. R. Sanford.*

COMPETITIVE PLANS

FOR

SCHOOLHOUSES.

Nos. 1 to 19, inclusive.

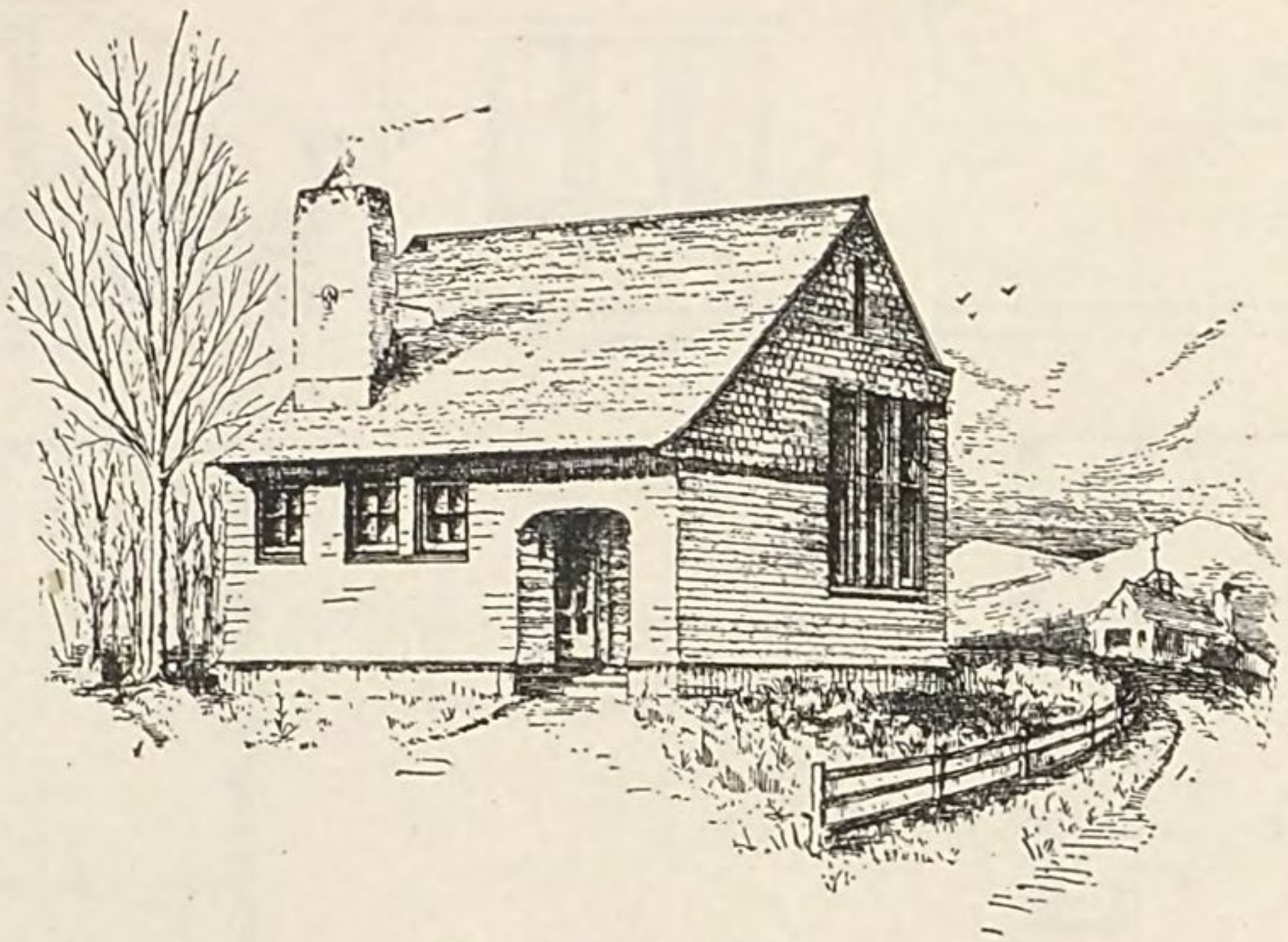
TO ILLUSTRATE APPENDIX V.

PLAN Nº 1

PLATE I

CLASS I

$600



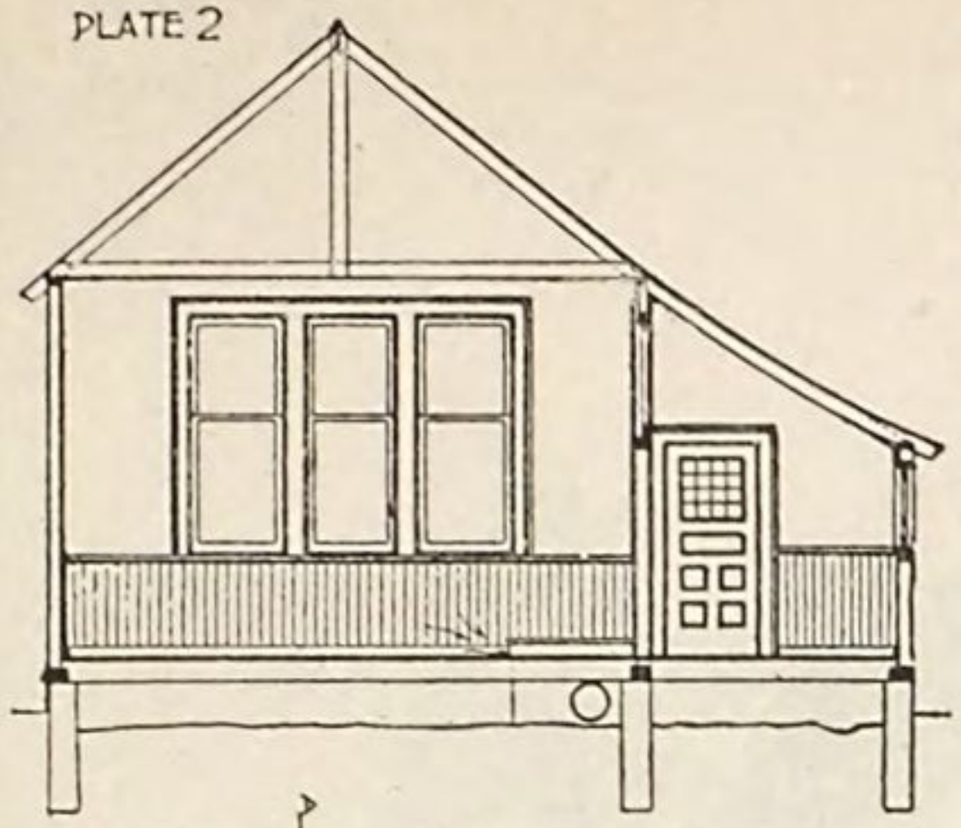
PERSPECTIVE

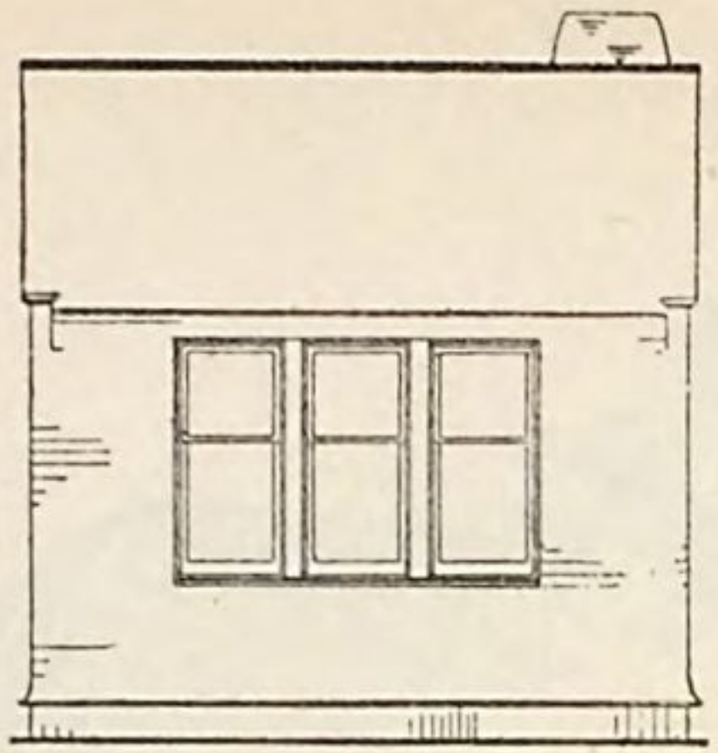
1ST PRIZE: Wm. P. Appleyard & E. A. Bowd. Lansing. Mich.

Fig. 7.

PLAN N°1

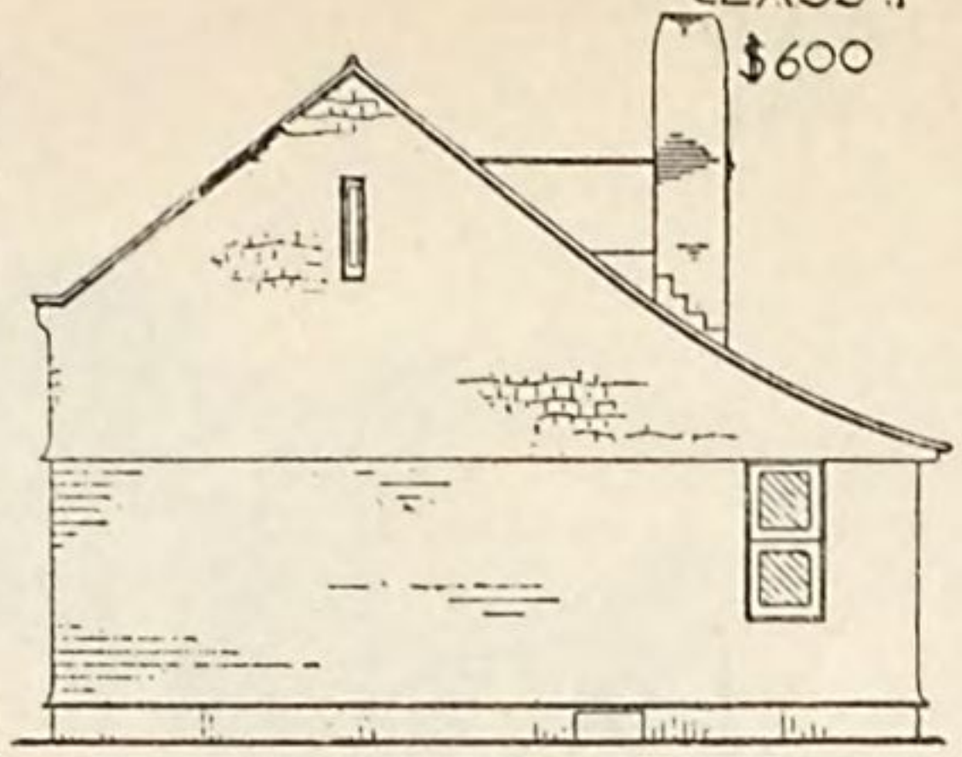
PLATE 2

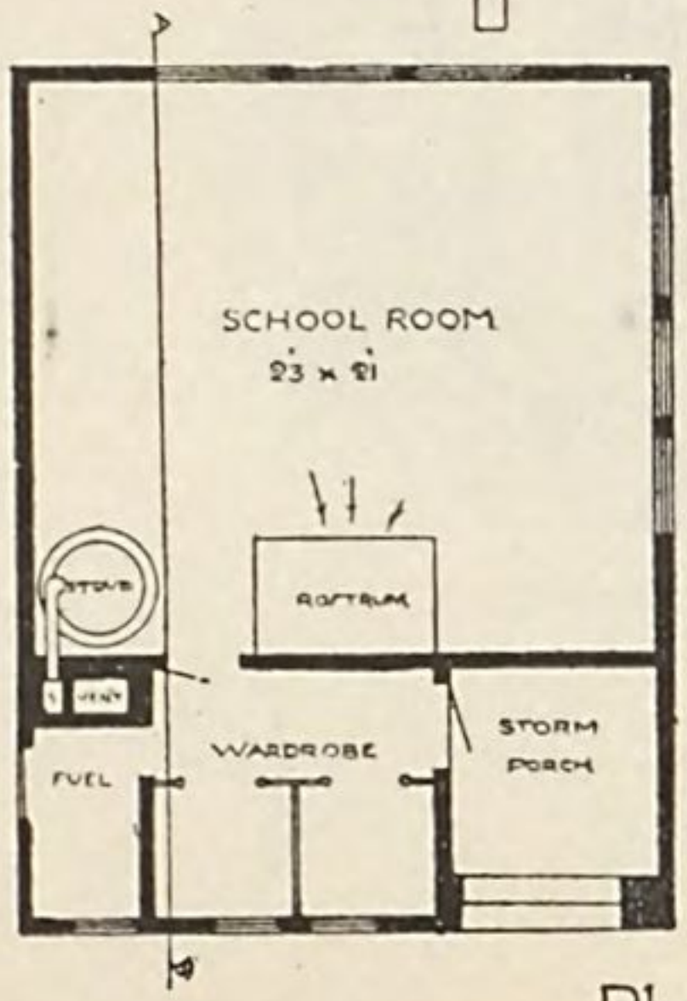




CLASS .1

$600



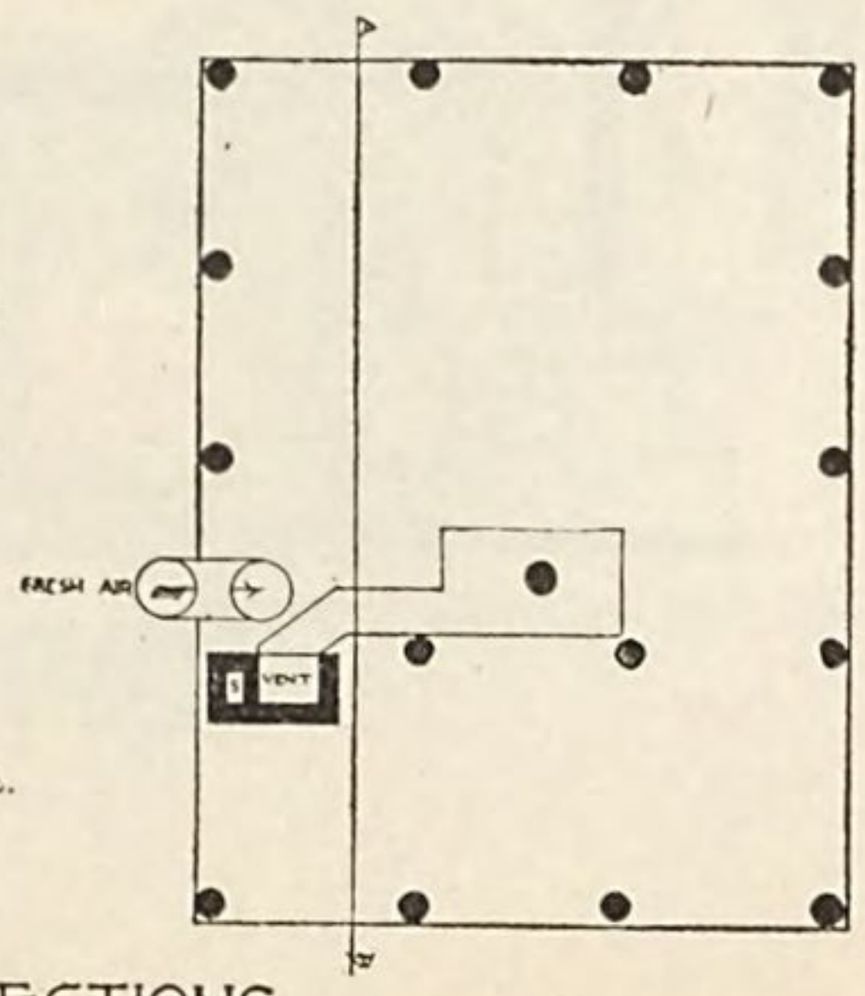


.IST PRIZE:

Wm. P. Appleyard & E. A. Bowd

Lansing. Mich.

Scale 5 10 15 feet.



PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

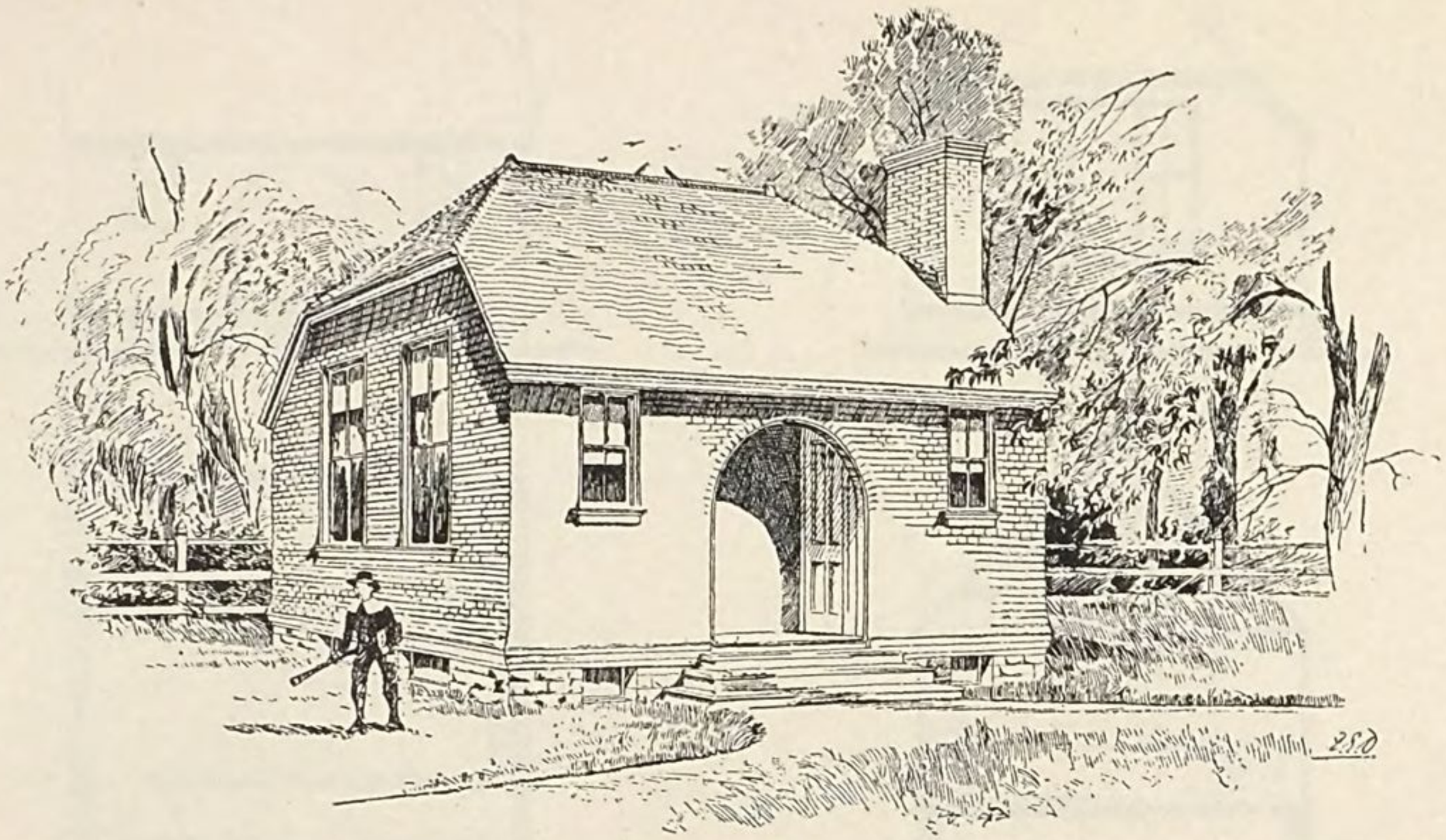
Fig. 8.

PLAN Nº 2.

PLATE I.

CLASS I.

$600



PERSPECTIVE

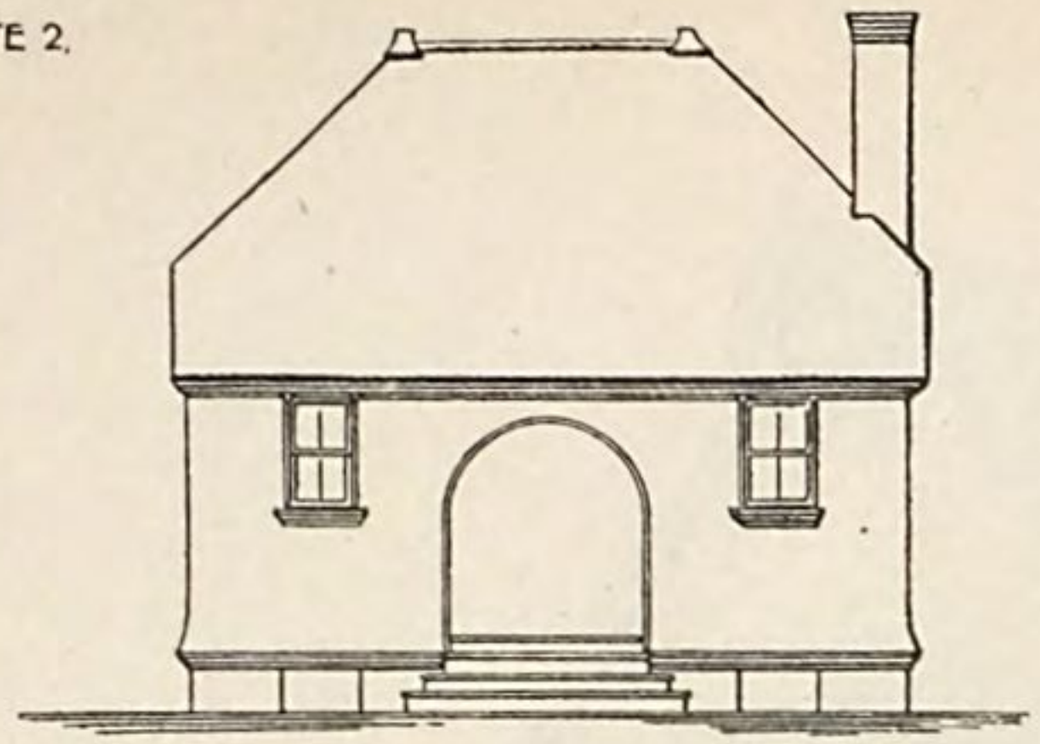
John R. Church. Rochester. N.Y.

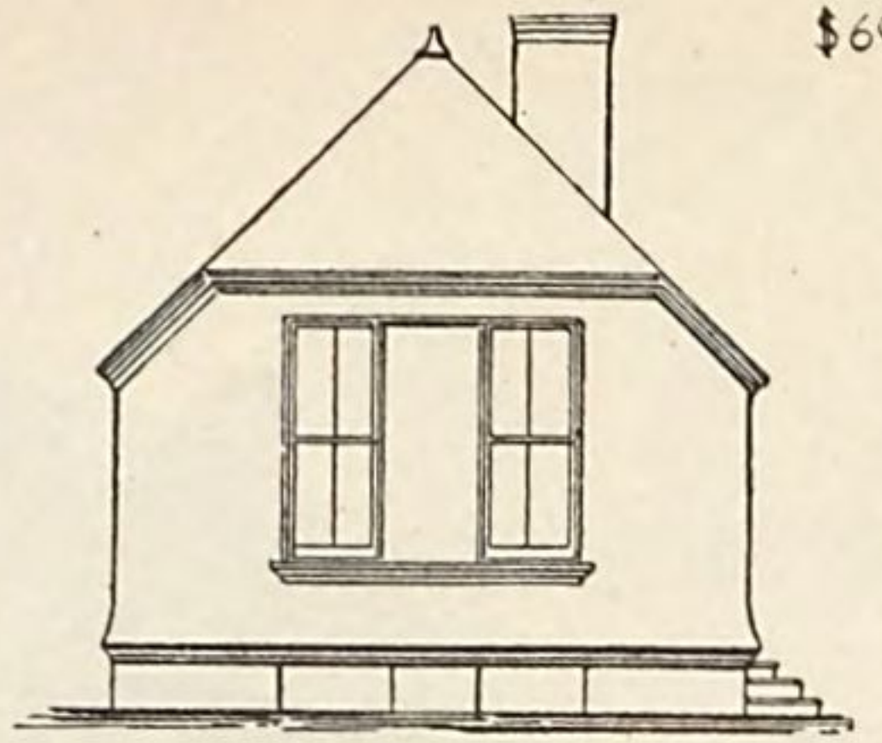
Fig. 9.

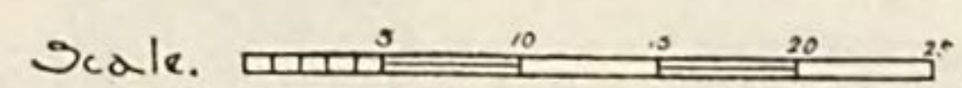
PLAN Nº 2.

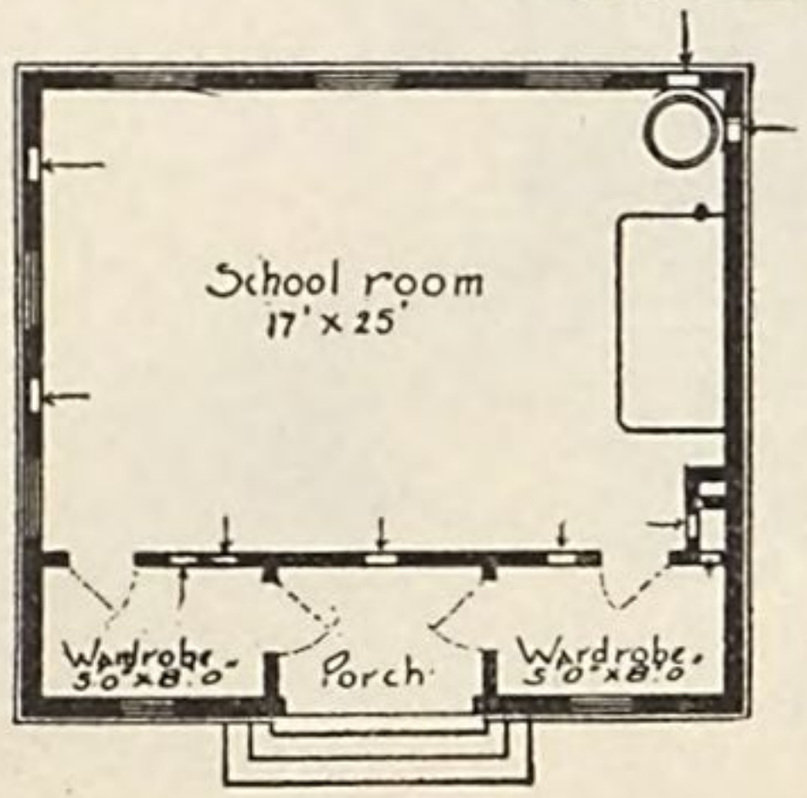
PLATE 2.

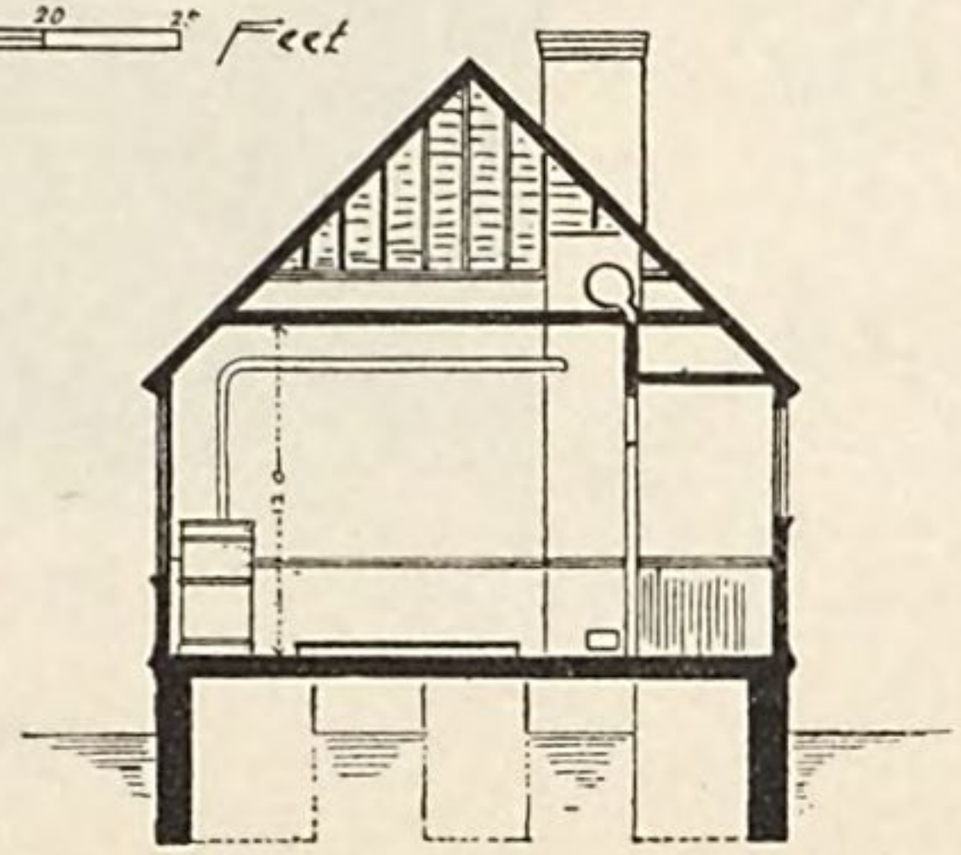
CLASS
$600











2ND PRIZE: John R. Church. Rochester. N.Y.

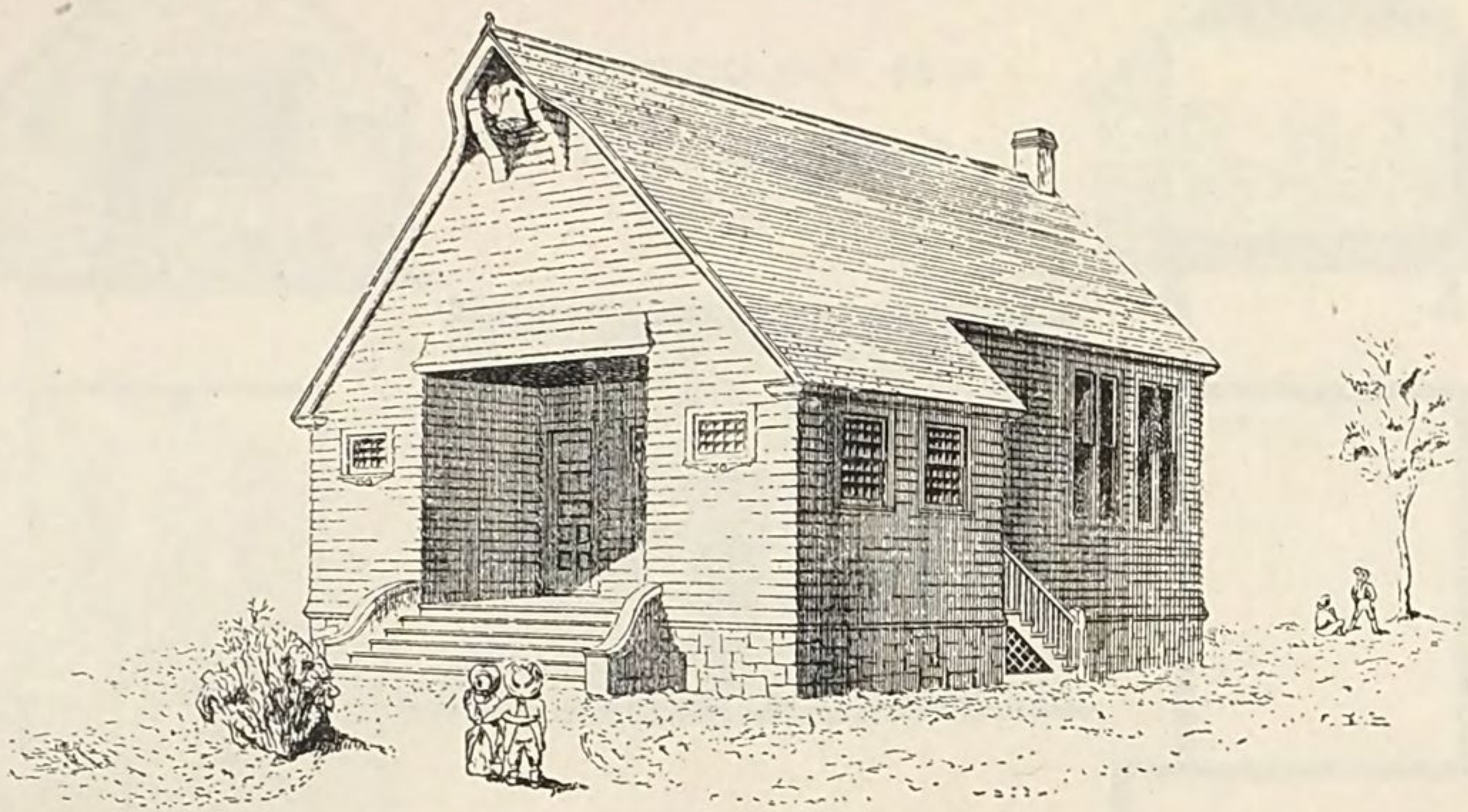
PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

Fig. 10.

PLAN Nº 3

PLATE I

CLASS I



PERSPECTIVE

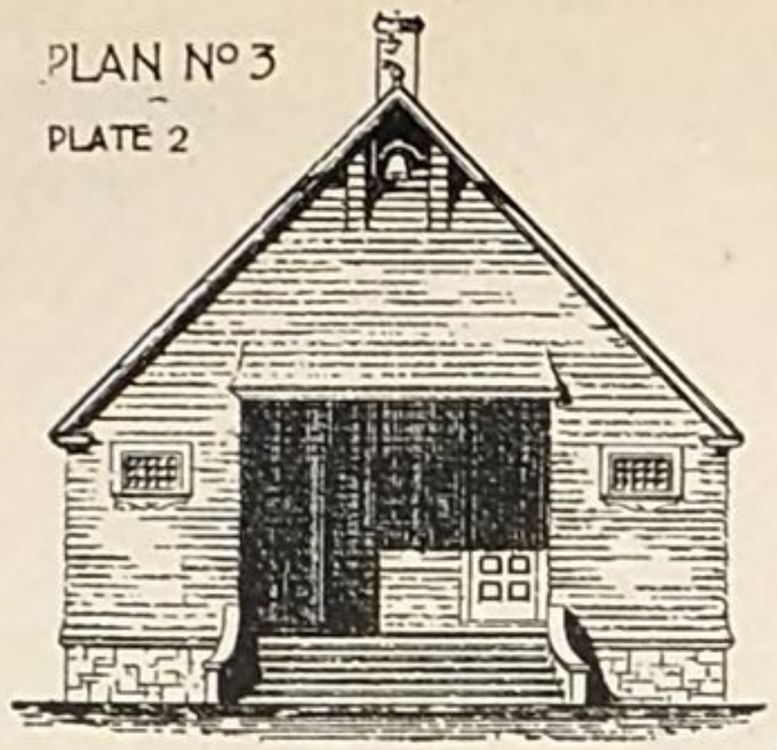
SPECIAL COMMENDATION; John Cox. Jr. 259 West 23rd St. ESTIMATED COST $800

Fig. 11.

PLAN N° 3

PLATE 2

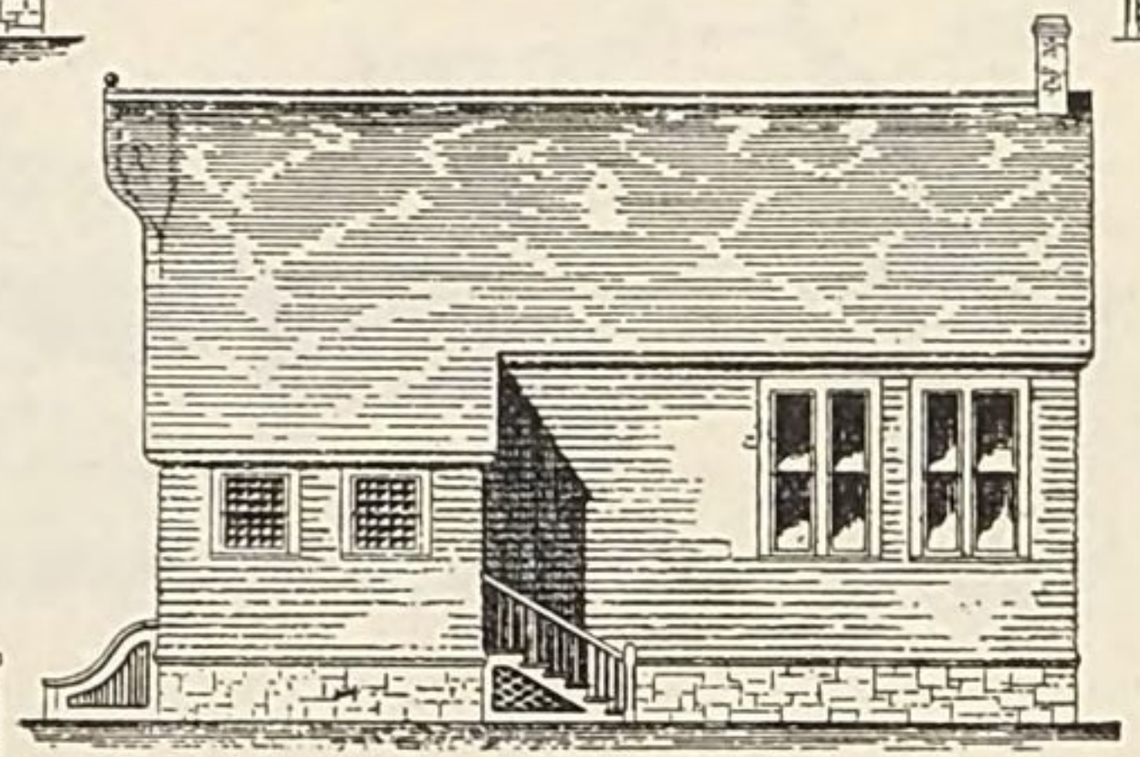
CLASS I.

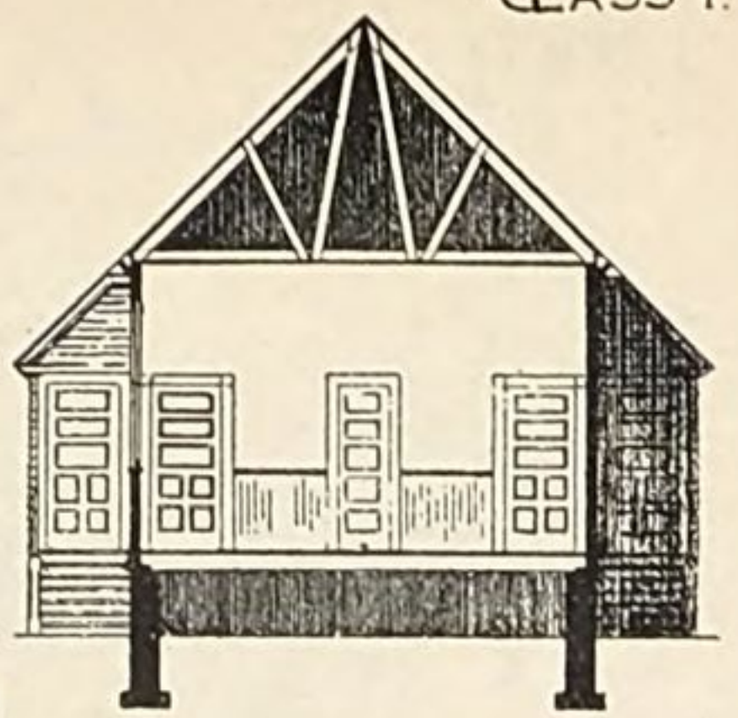


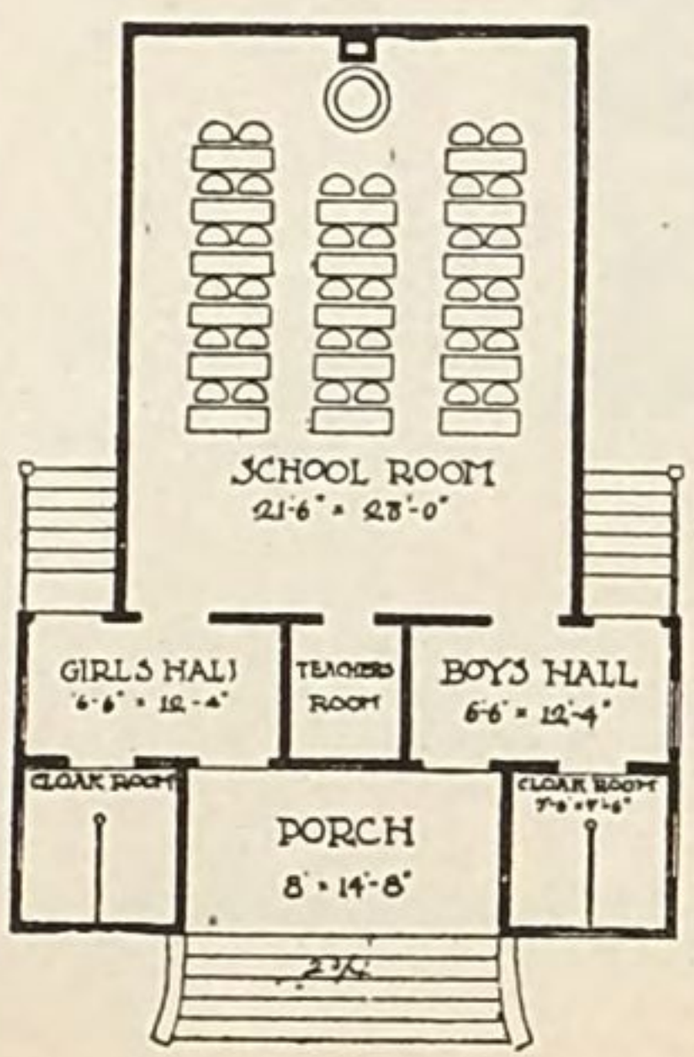
SPECIAL COMMENDATION:

ESTIMATED COST $800

John Cox. Jr. 259 West 25th St.







PLANS

ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

SCALE 0 5 10 15 20 25 FEET

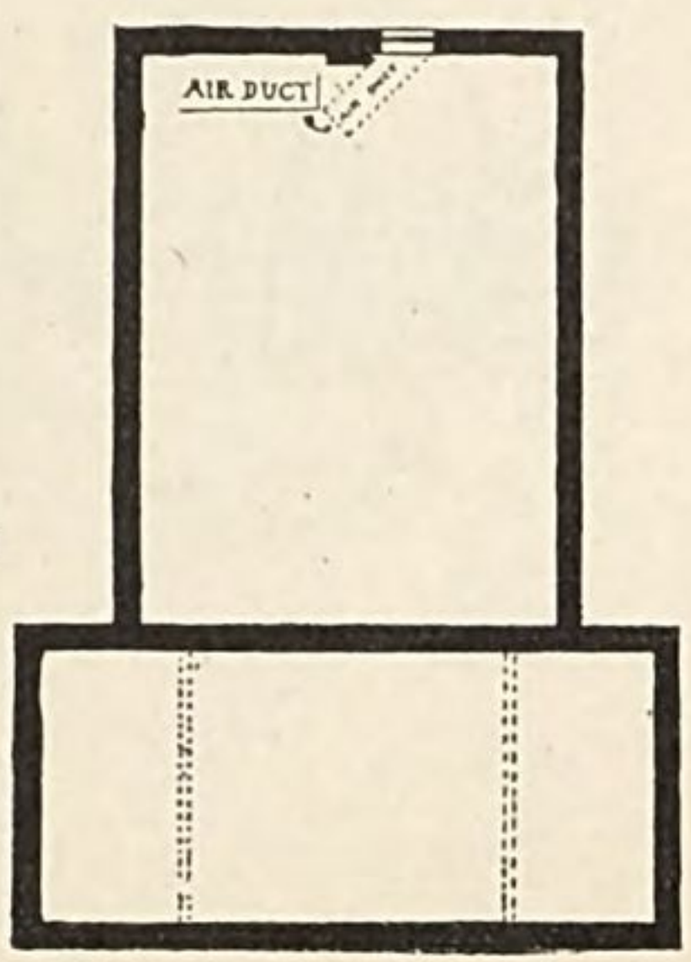
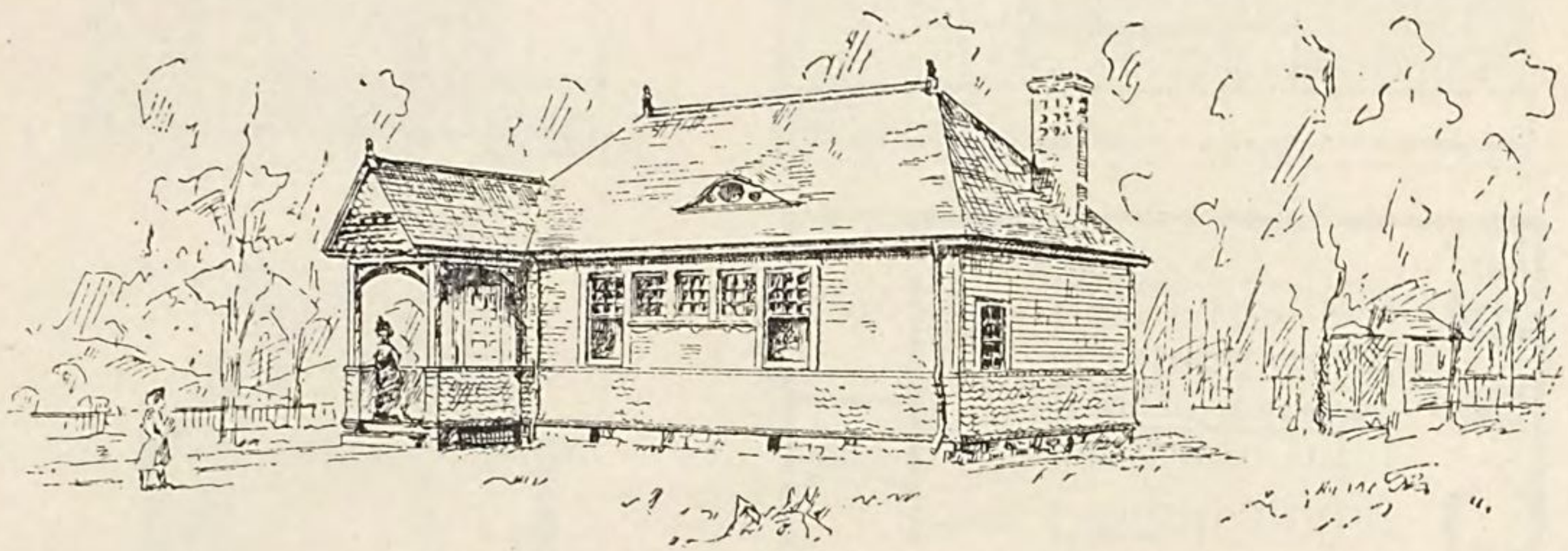


Fig. 12.

PLAN No. 4.

CLASS I

PLATE I



PERSPECTIVE

ESTIMATED COST $700

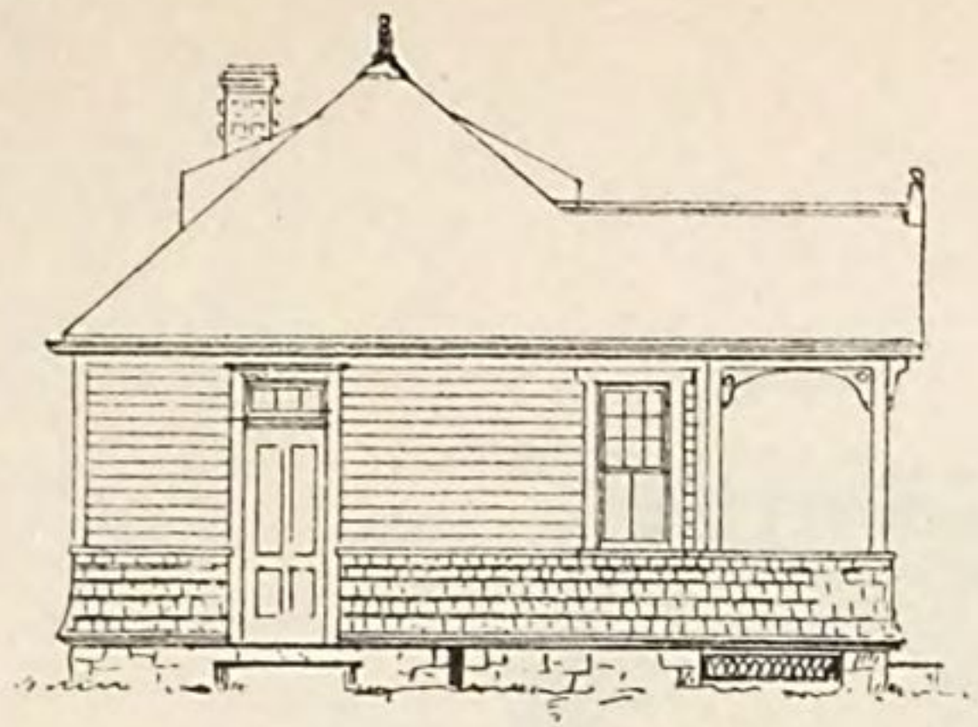
Clarence Trve. Yonkers. N.Y.

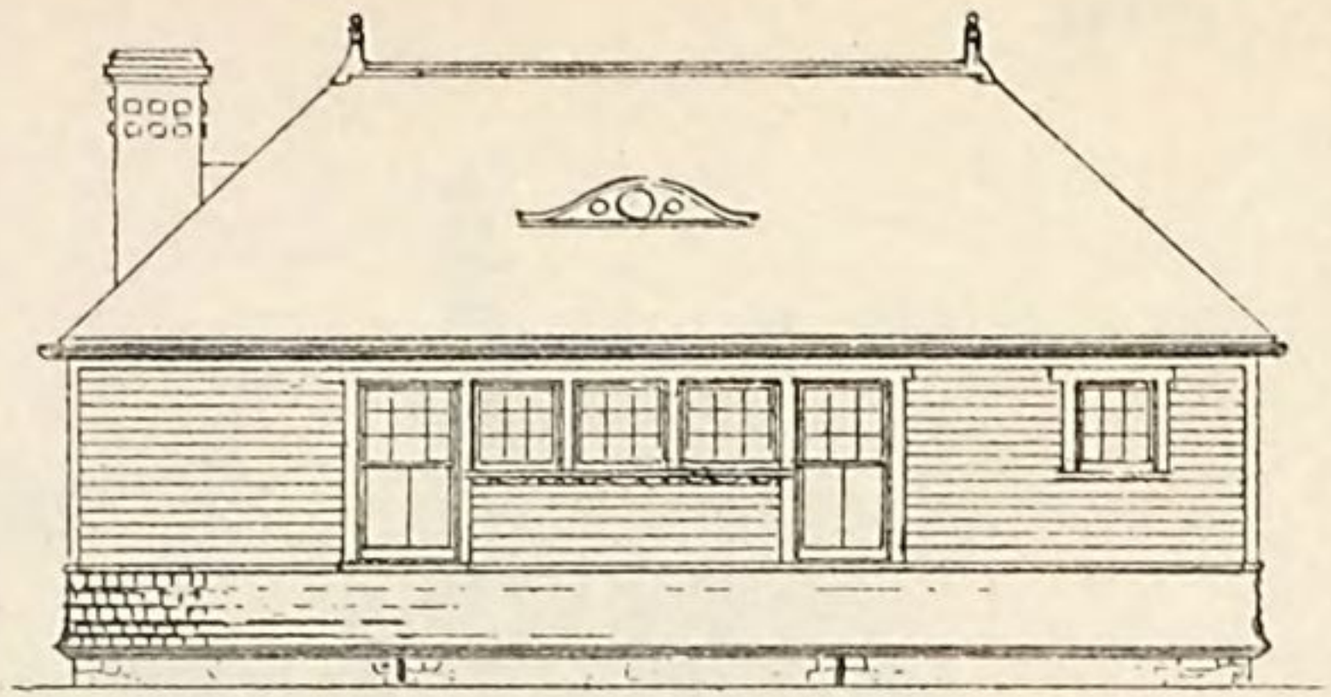
Fig. 13.

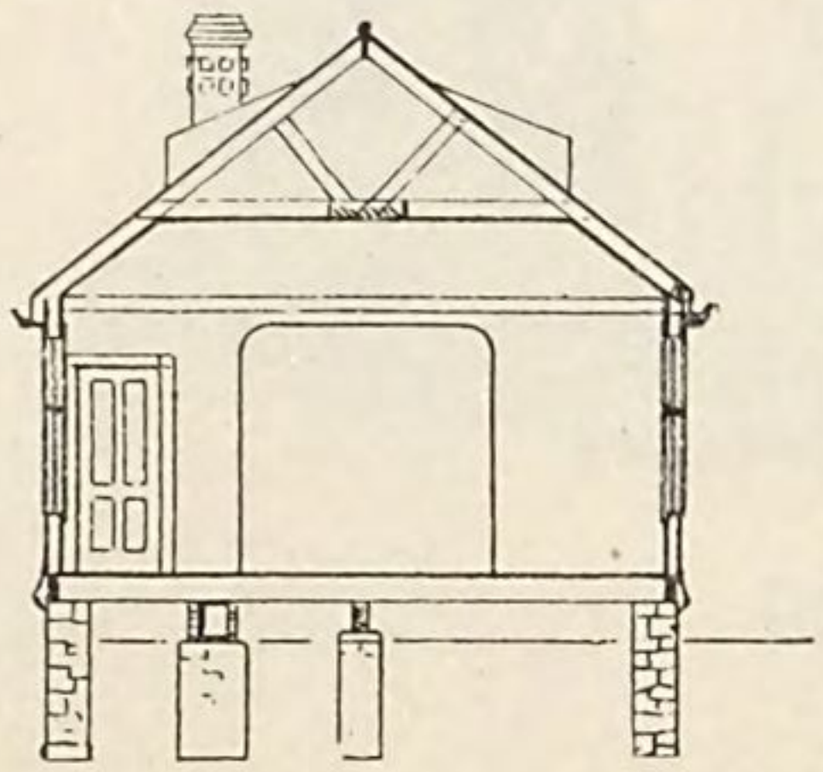
PLAN Nº 4

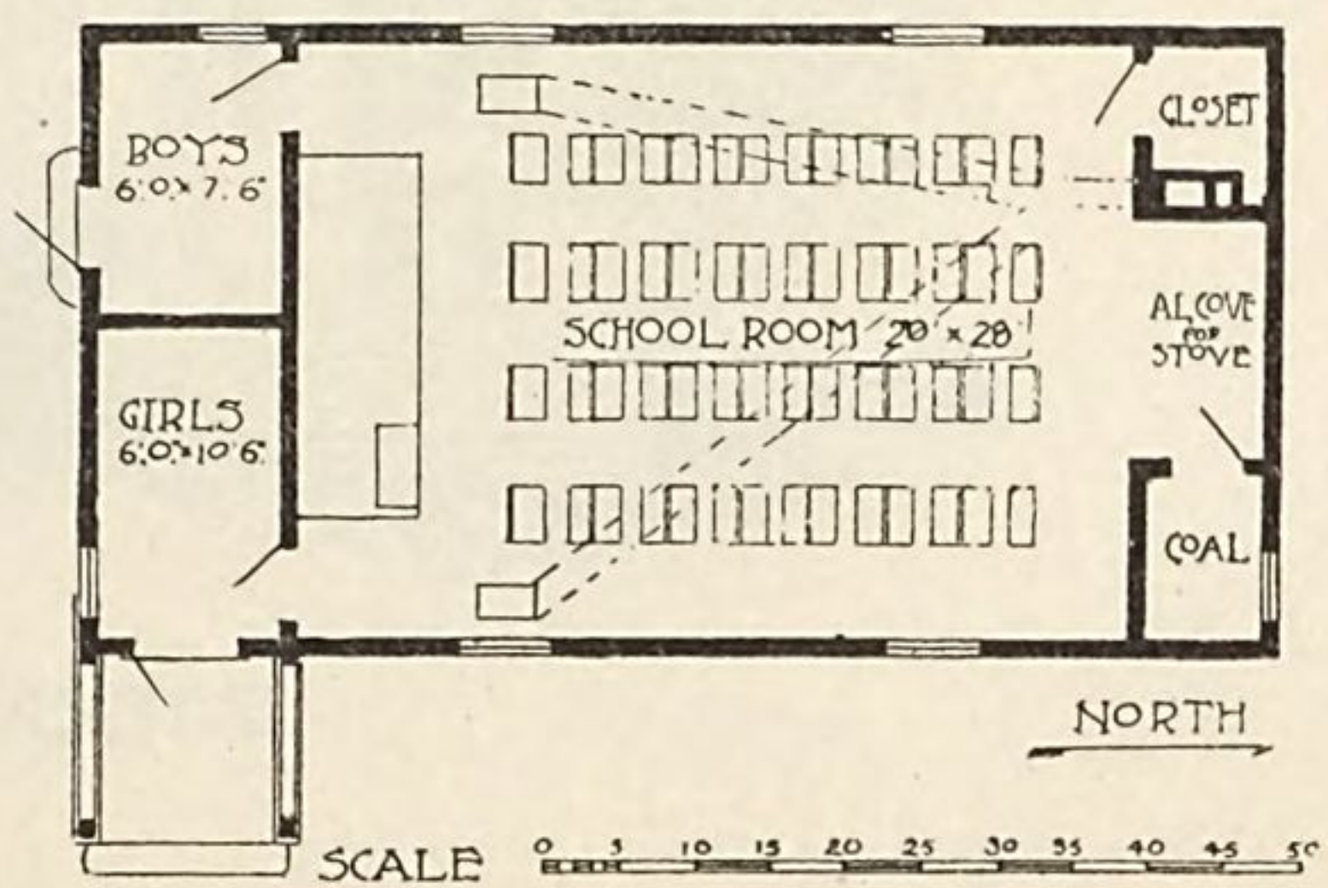
PLATE 2

CLASS I









ESTIMATED COST $700

Clarence Trve. Yonkers N.Y.

PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

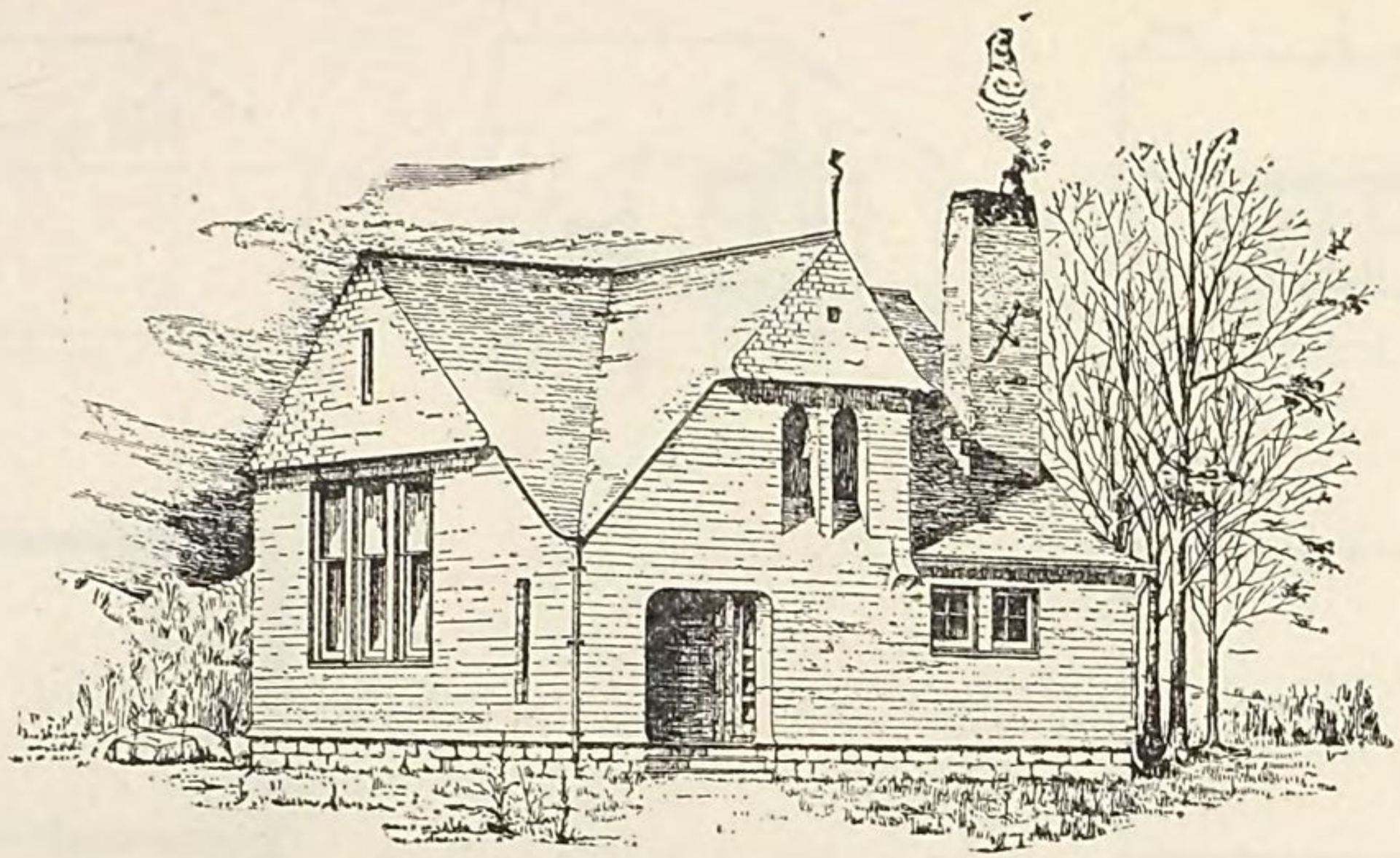
Fig. 14.

PLAN N°5.

PLATE I.

CLASS II.

$1000.



PERSPECTIVE

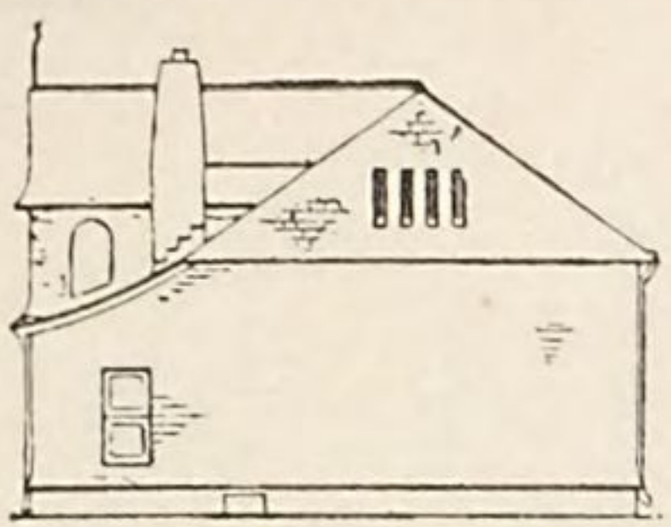
1ST PRIZE: Wm. P. Appleyard & E. A. Bowd. Lansing. Mich.

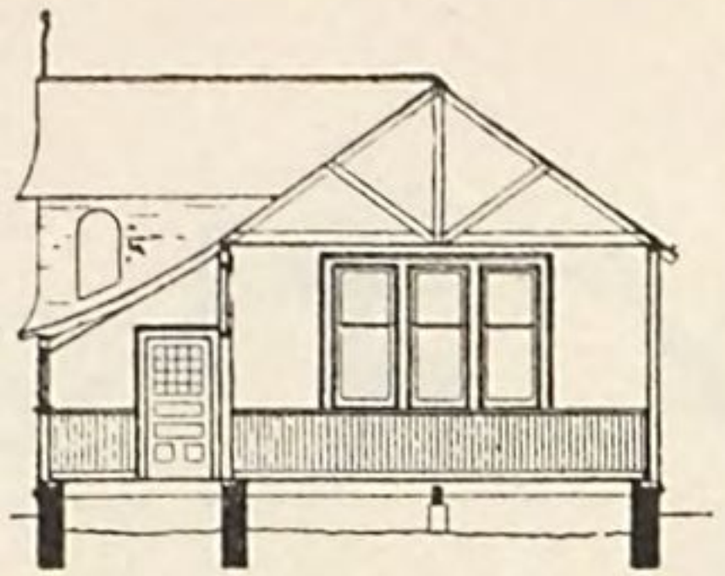
Fig. 15.

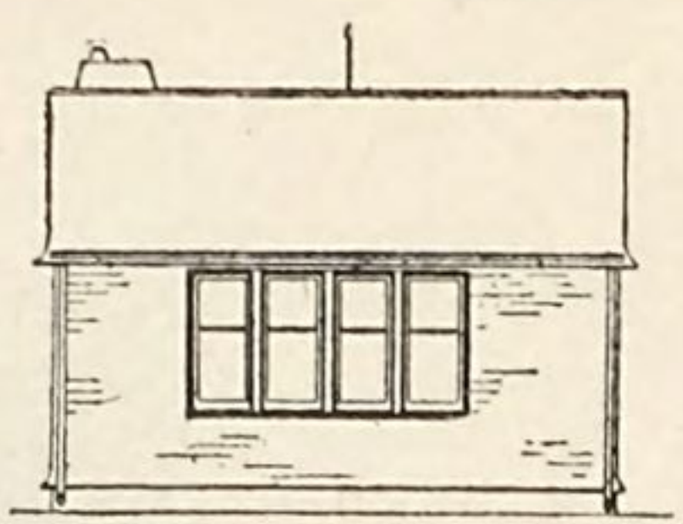
PLAN Nº5

PLATE 2

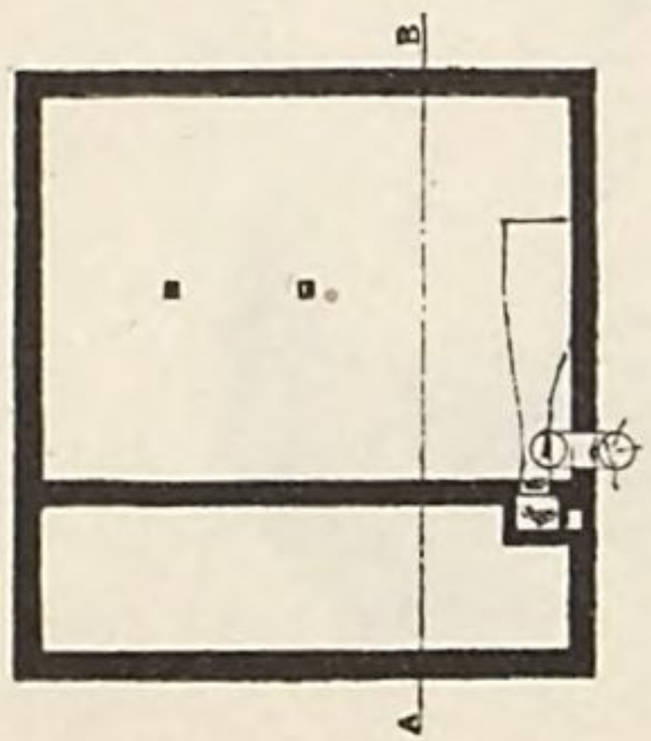
CLASS II
$1000





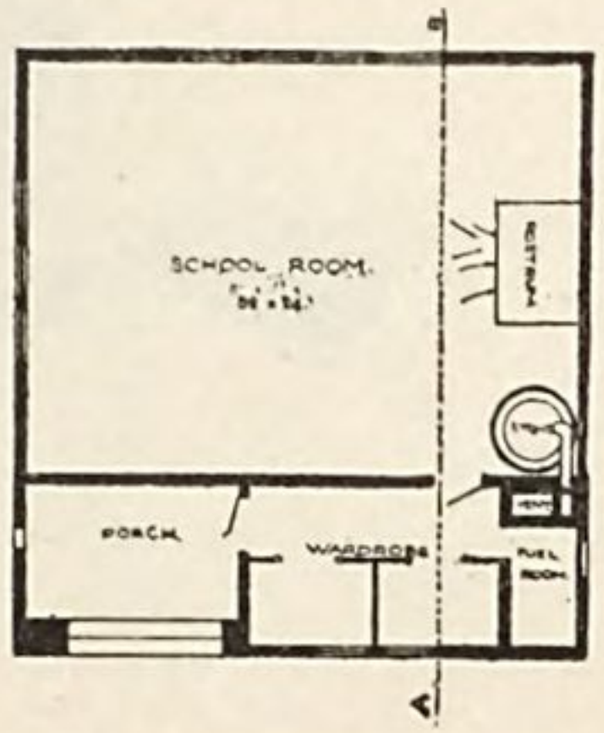


SCALE ⅛ INCH = 1 FOOT



PLANS

ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS



1ST PRIZE: Wm. P. Appleyard & E. A. Bowd. Lansing. Mich.

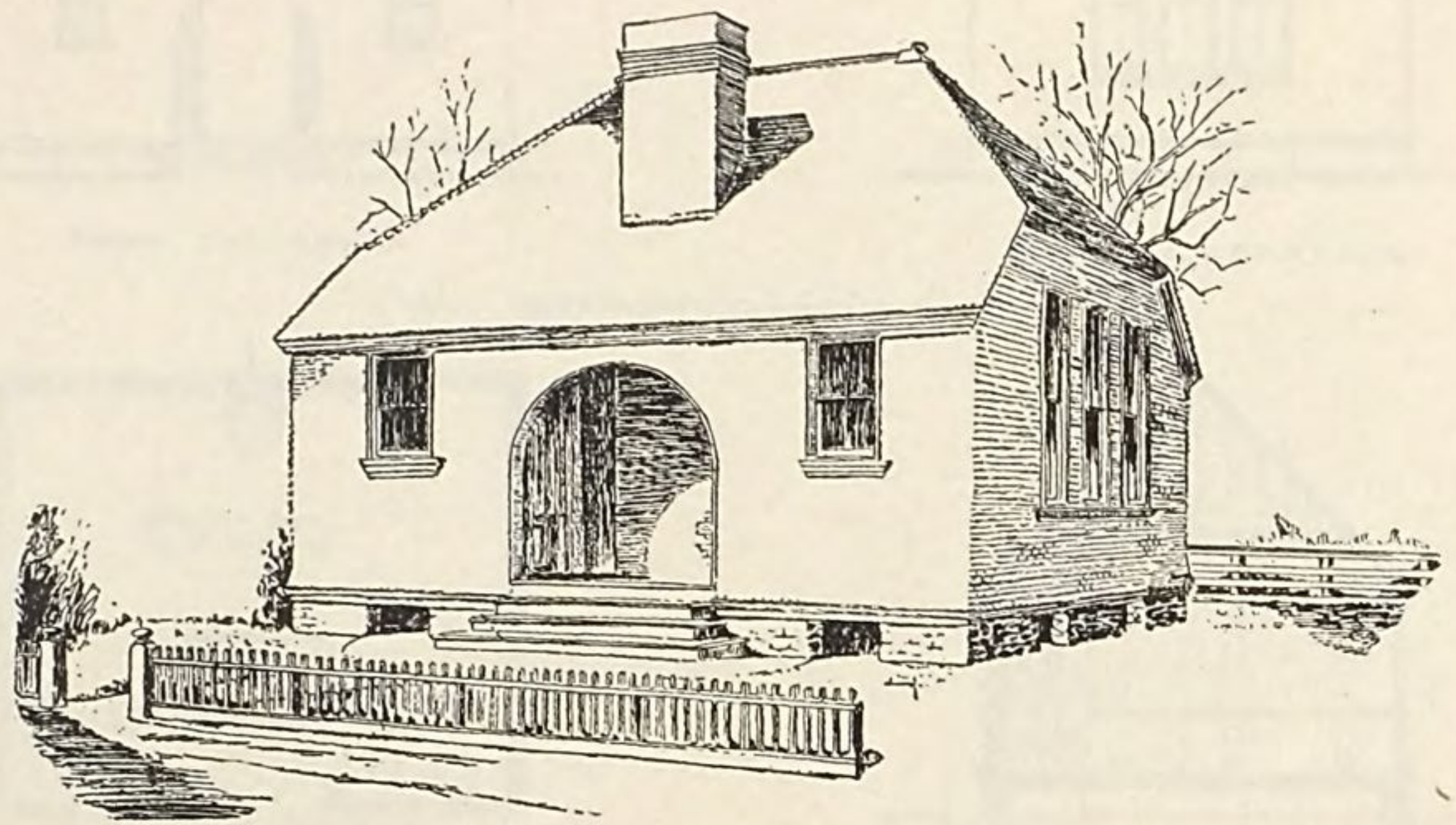
Fig. 16.

PLAN. Nº 6.

PLATE I.

CLASS. II.

$1000.



PERSPECTIVE

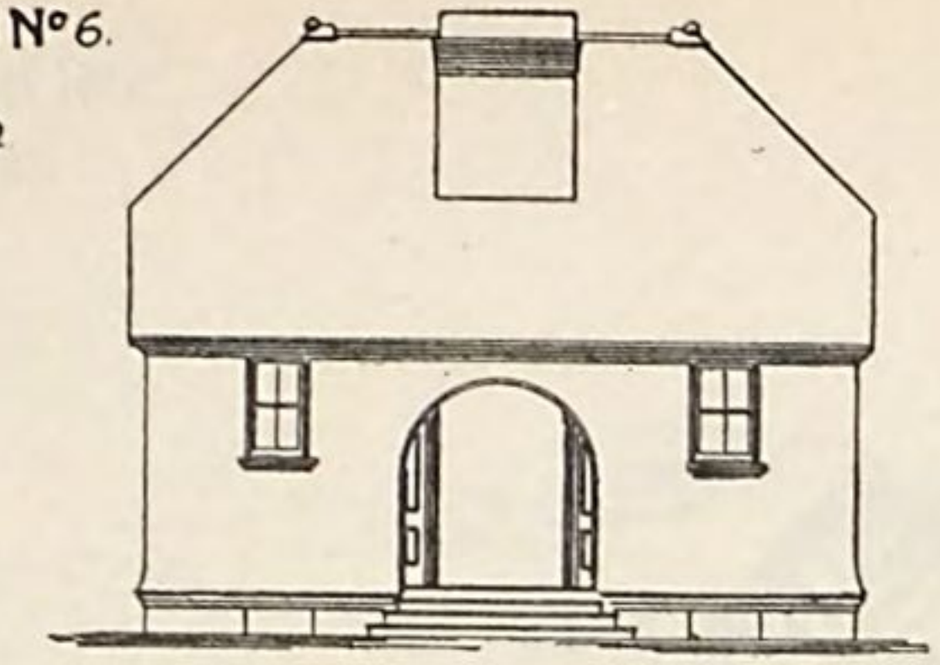
2ND. PRIZE:

John R. Church. Rochester. N.Y.

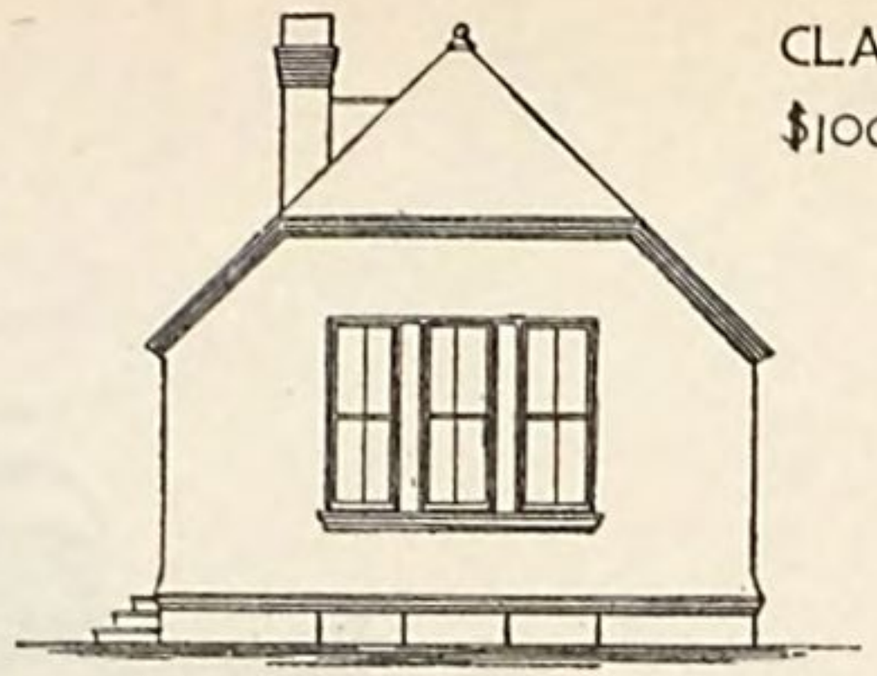
Fig. 17.

PLAN N°6.

PLATE 2



FRONT ELEVATION

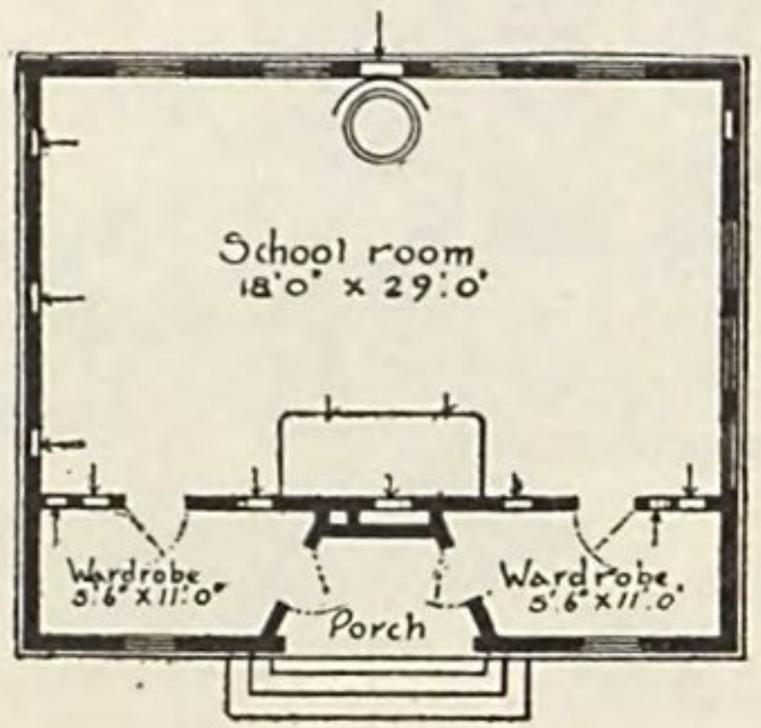


SIDE ELEVATION

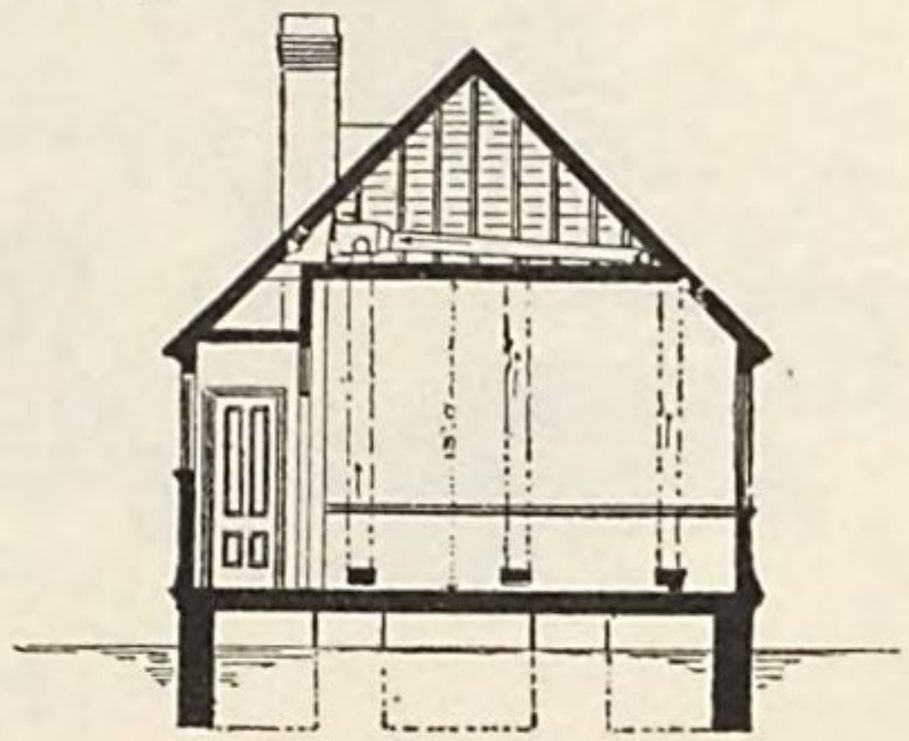
CLASS II

$1000

Scale 0 10 15 20 25 Feet



FLOOR PLAN



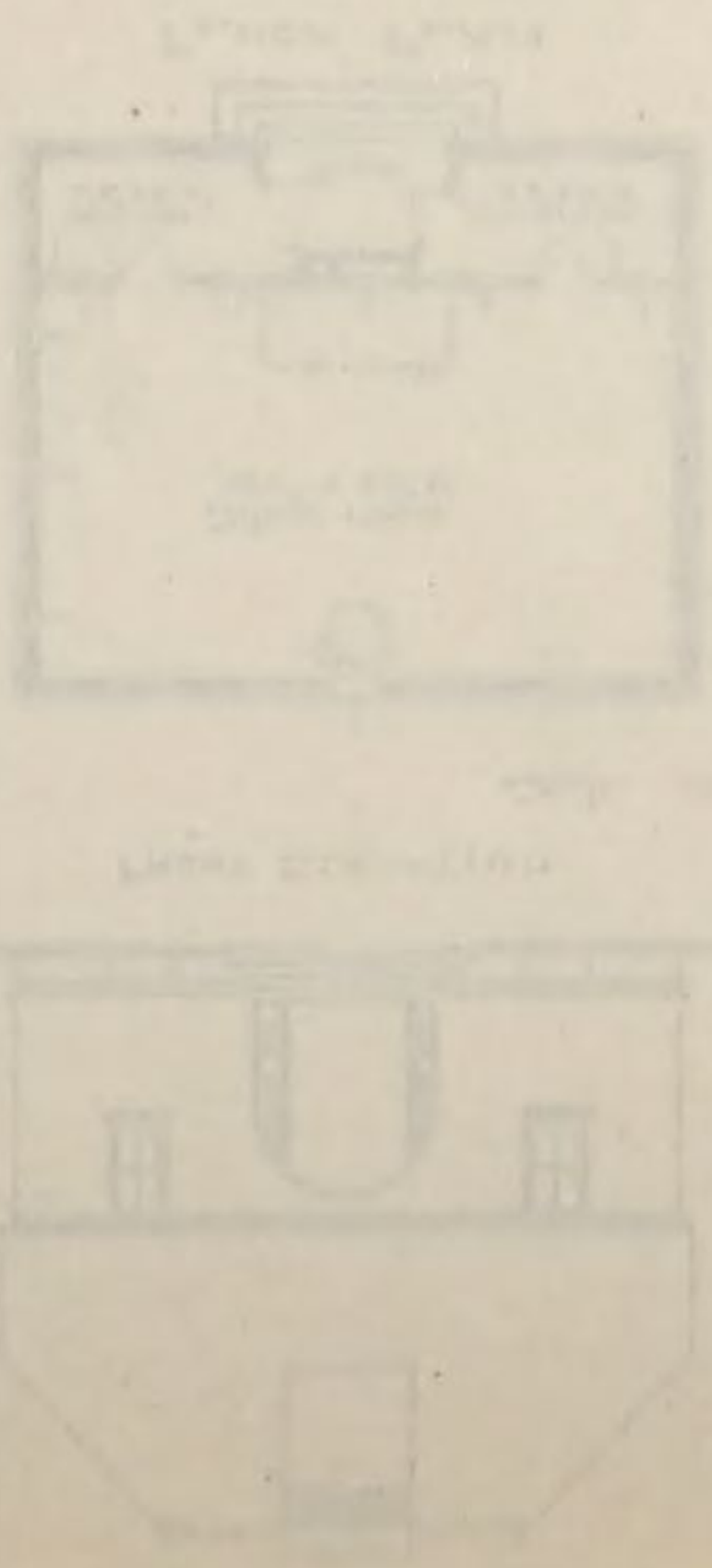
SECTION

PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

2ND. PRIZE.

John R. Church. Rochester. N.Y.

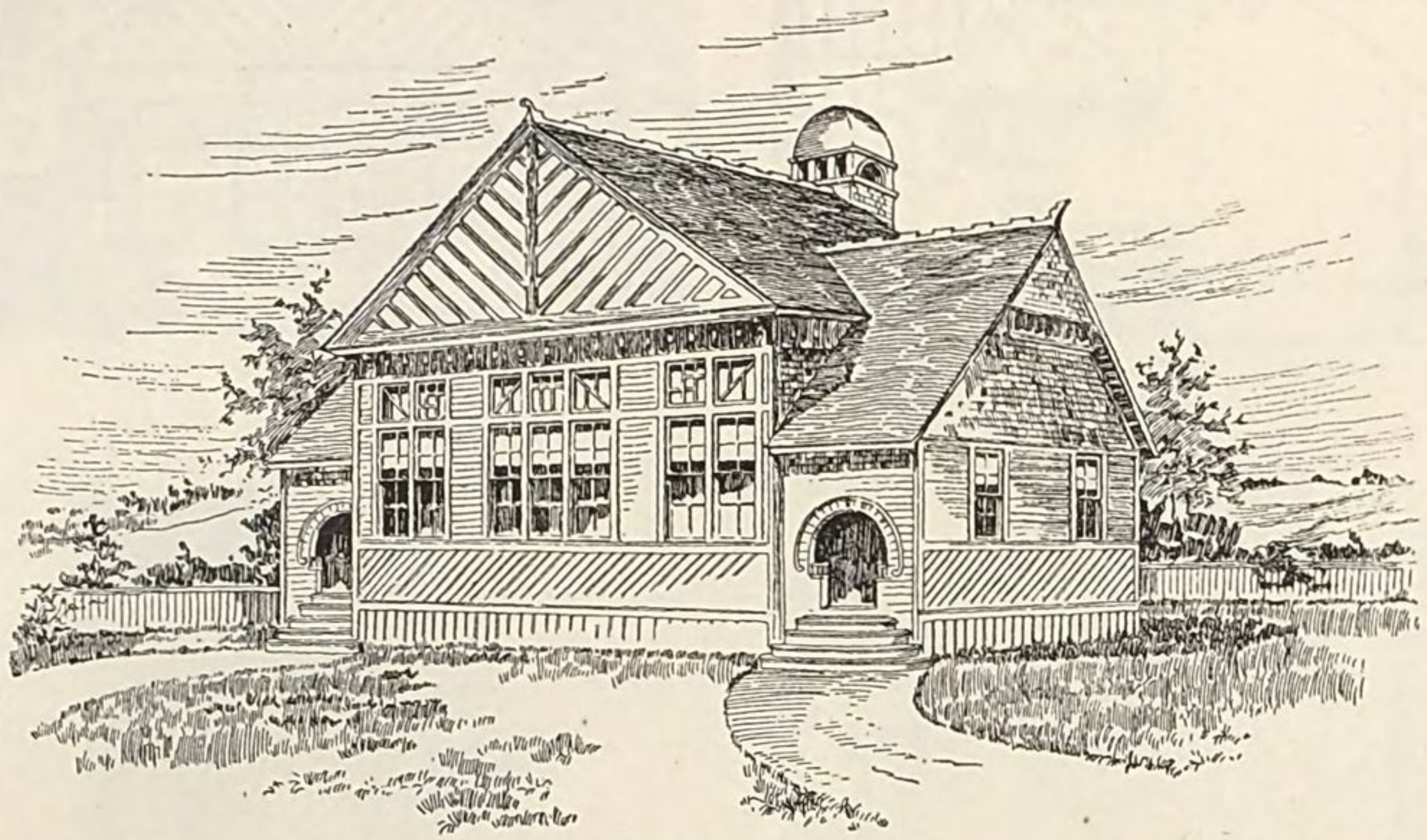
Fig. 18.



PLAN N° 7.

CLASS II

PLATE I.



PERSPECTIVE

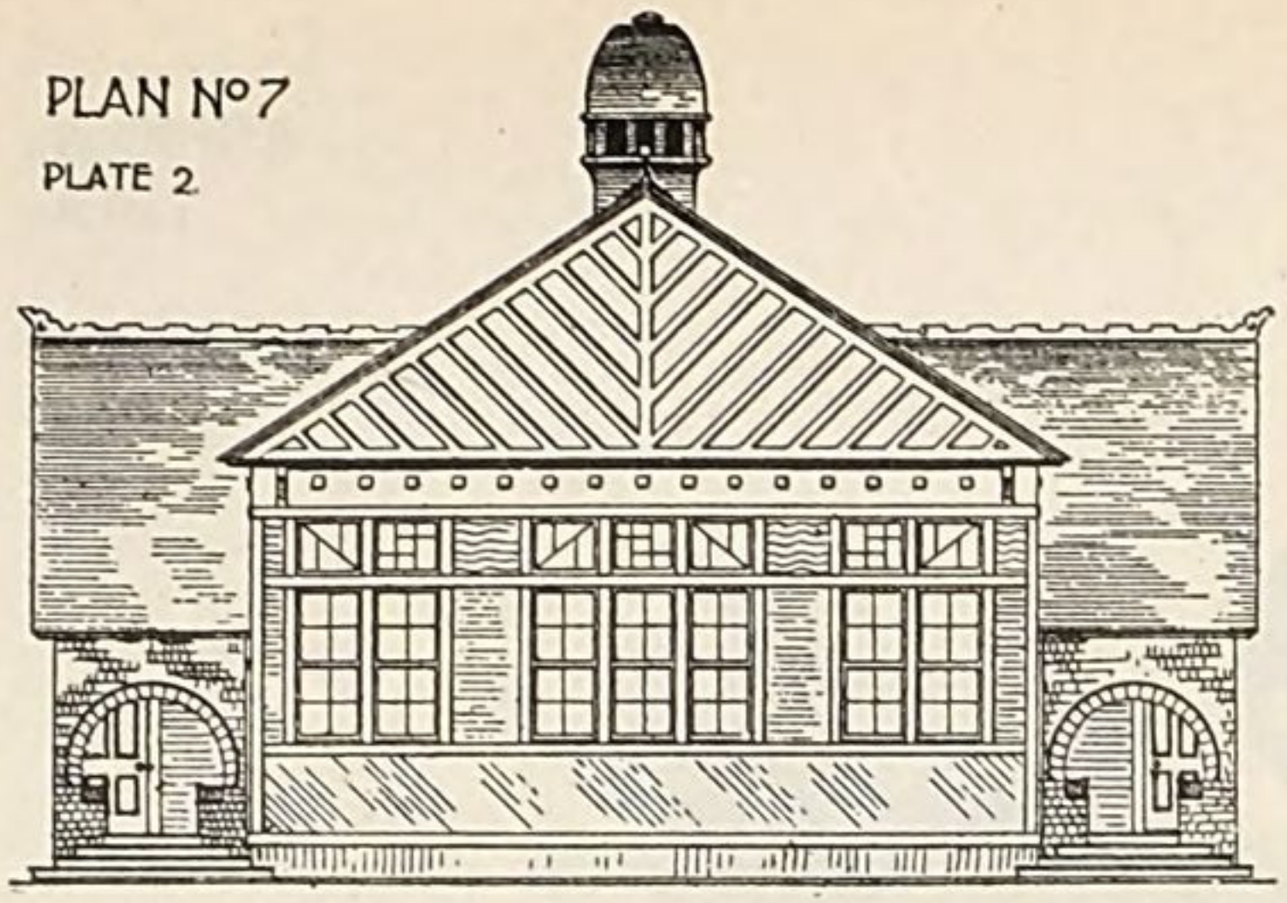
SPECIAL COMMENDATION. C Powell Karr. Room 217 Stewart Bldg. New York City ESTIMATED COST $1200

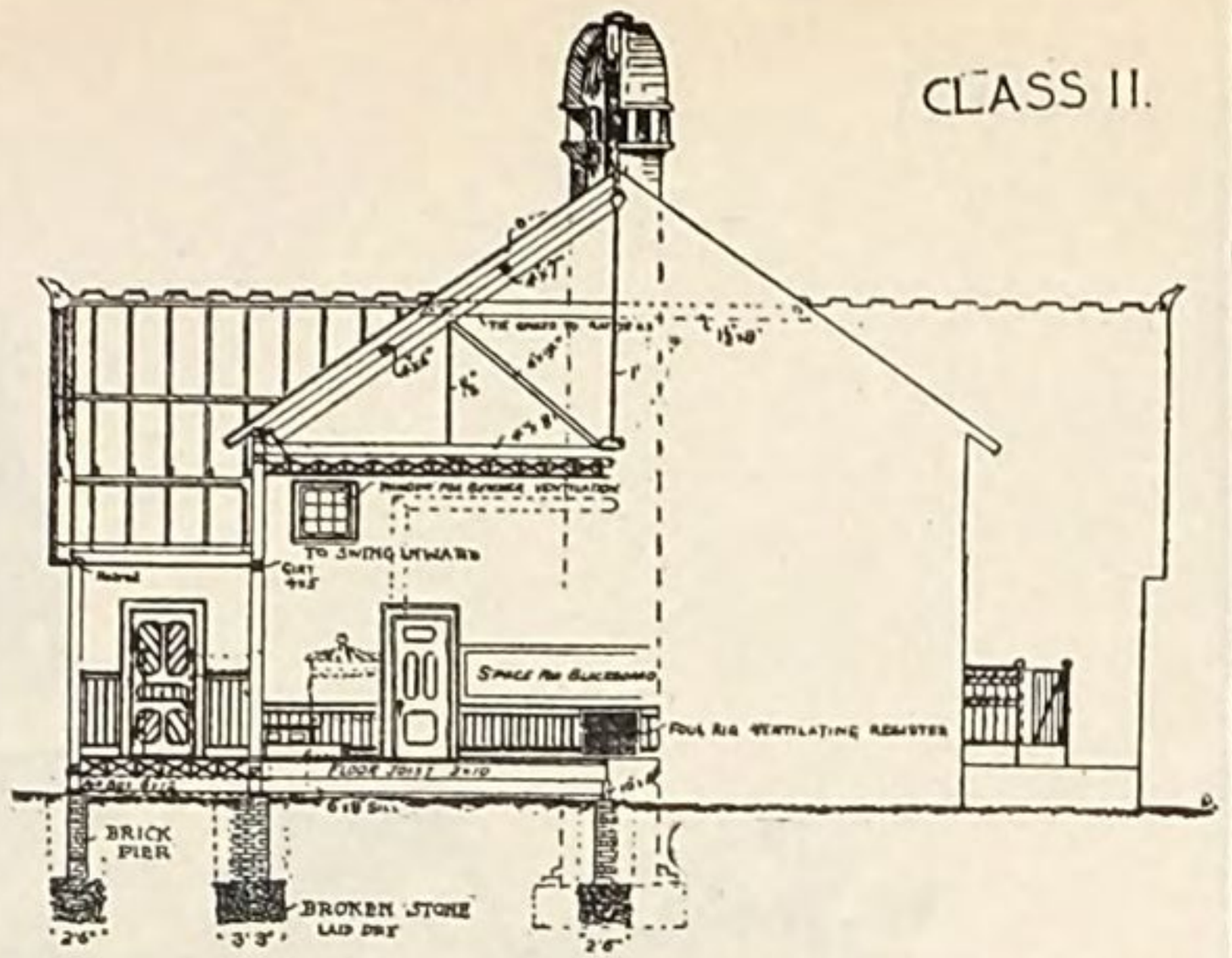
Fig. 19.

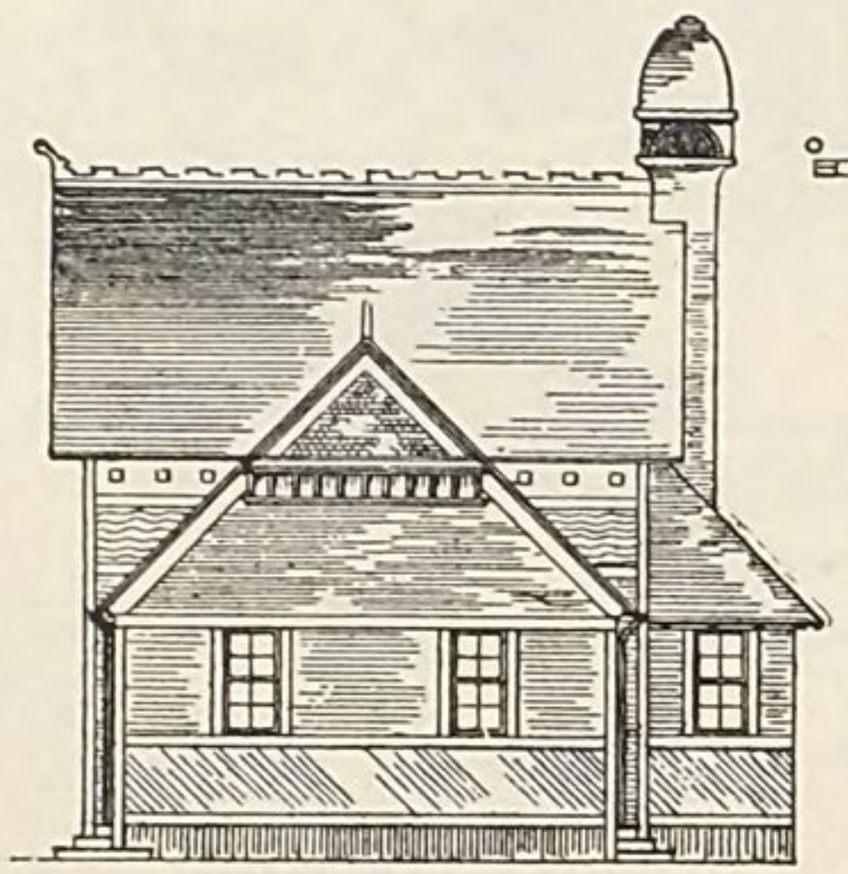
PLAN N°7

PLATE 2.

CLASS II.



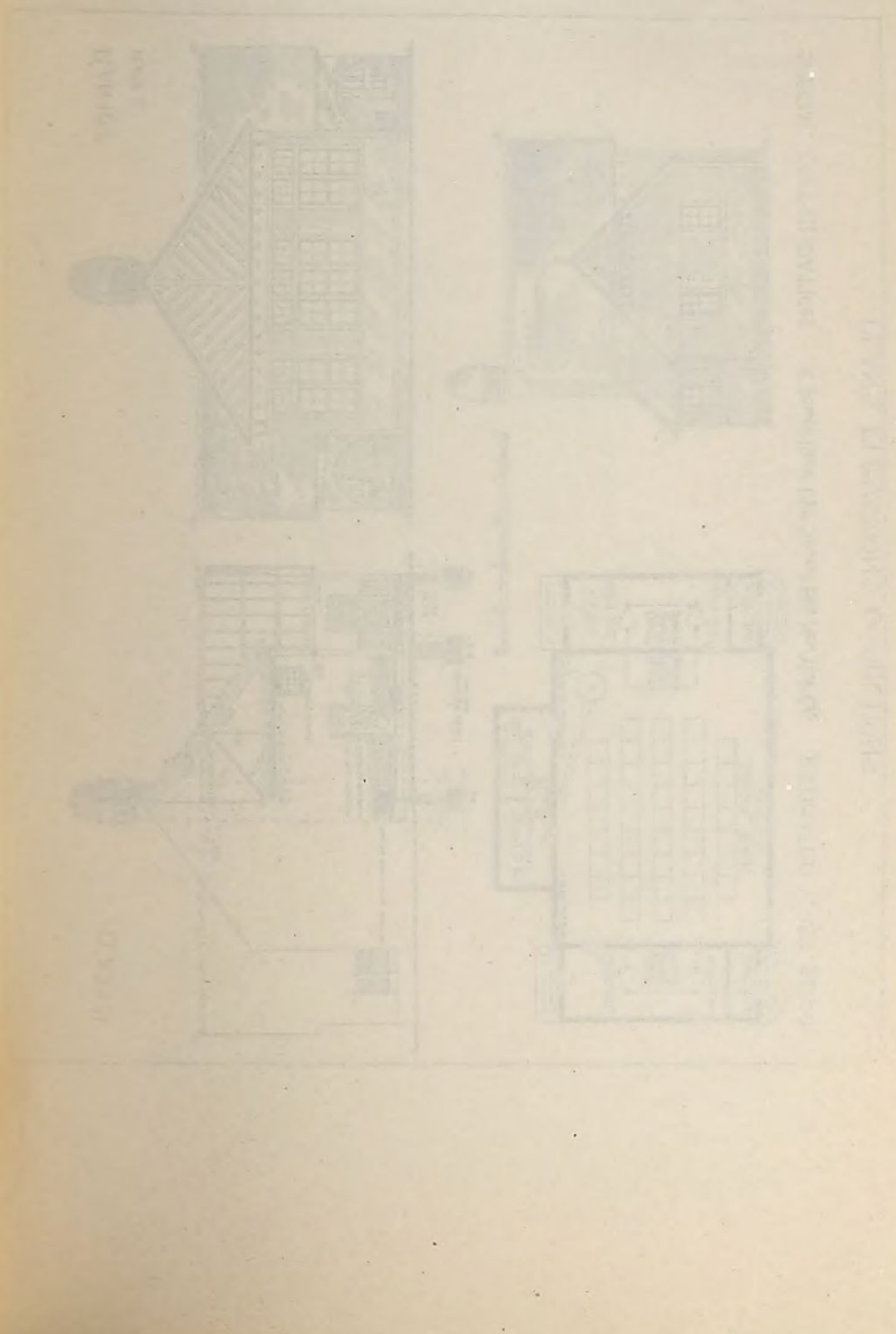




SPECIAL COMMENDATION C. Powell Karr. Room 217 Stewart Bldg. New York City ESTIMATED COST $1200

PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

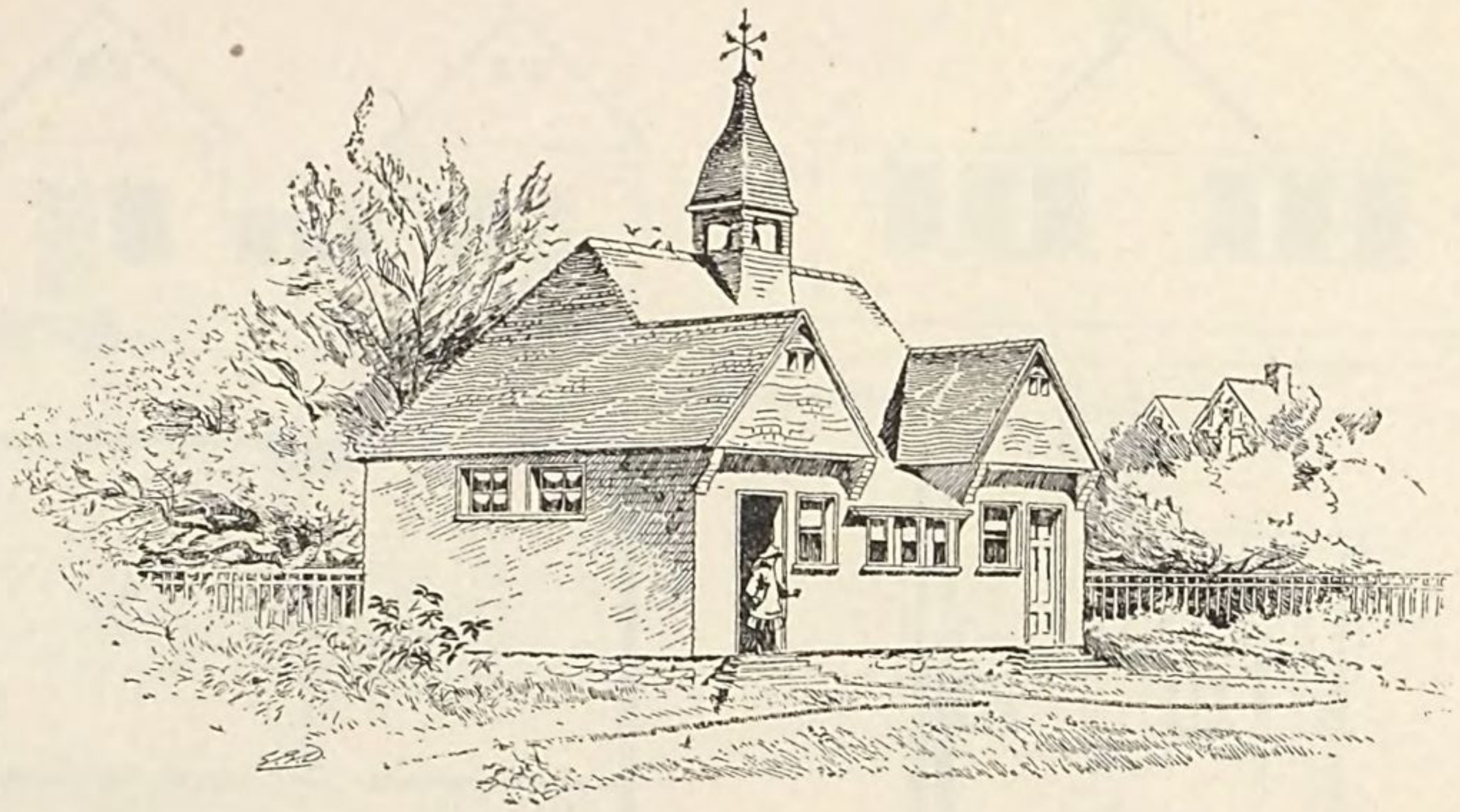
Fig. 20.



PLAN N° 8

PLATE I

CLASS II.



PERSPECTIVE

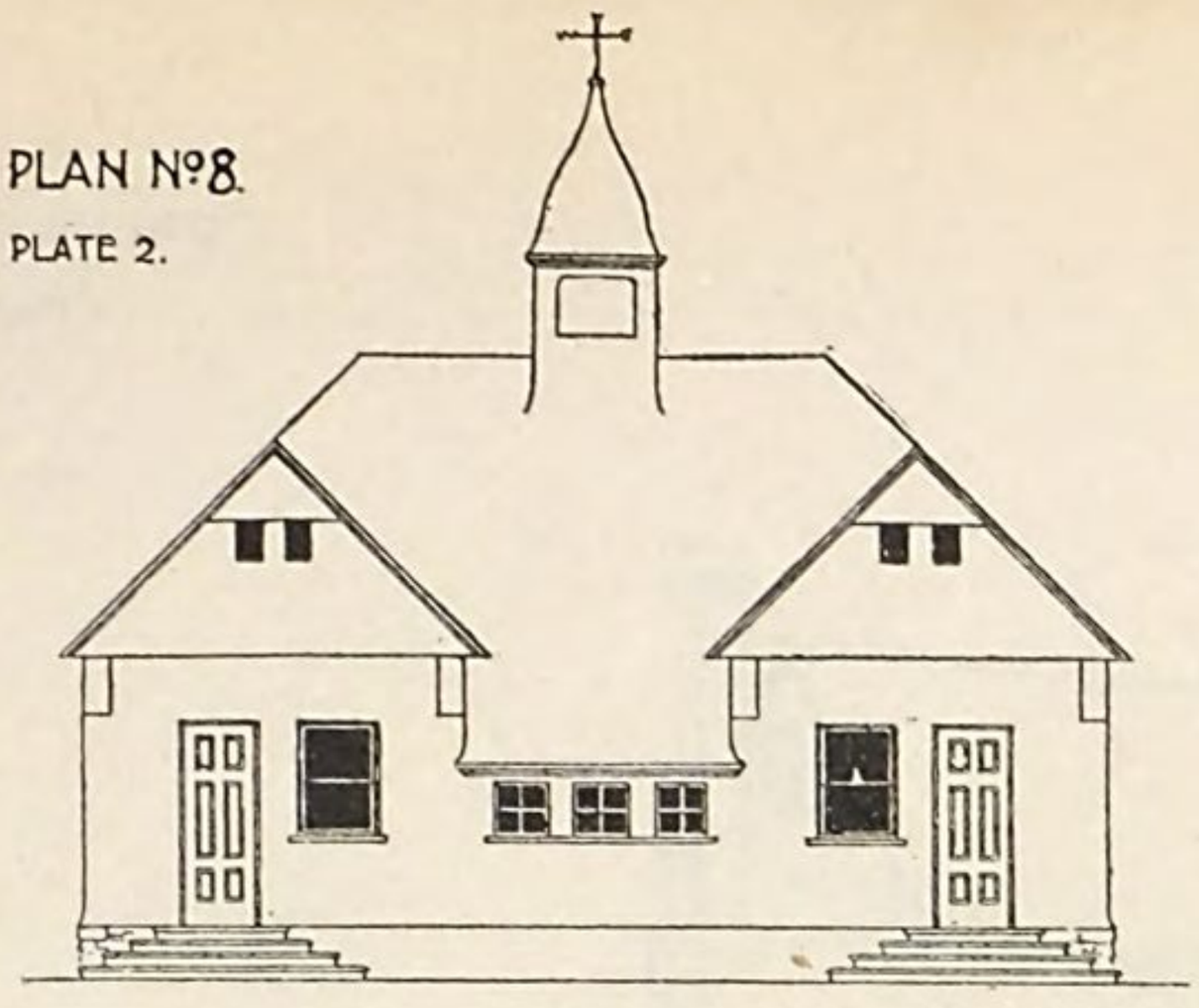
ESTIMATED COST $1100. J.C.A. Heriot & Corliss McKinney. Albany. N.Y.

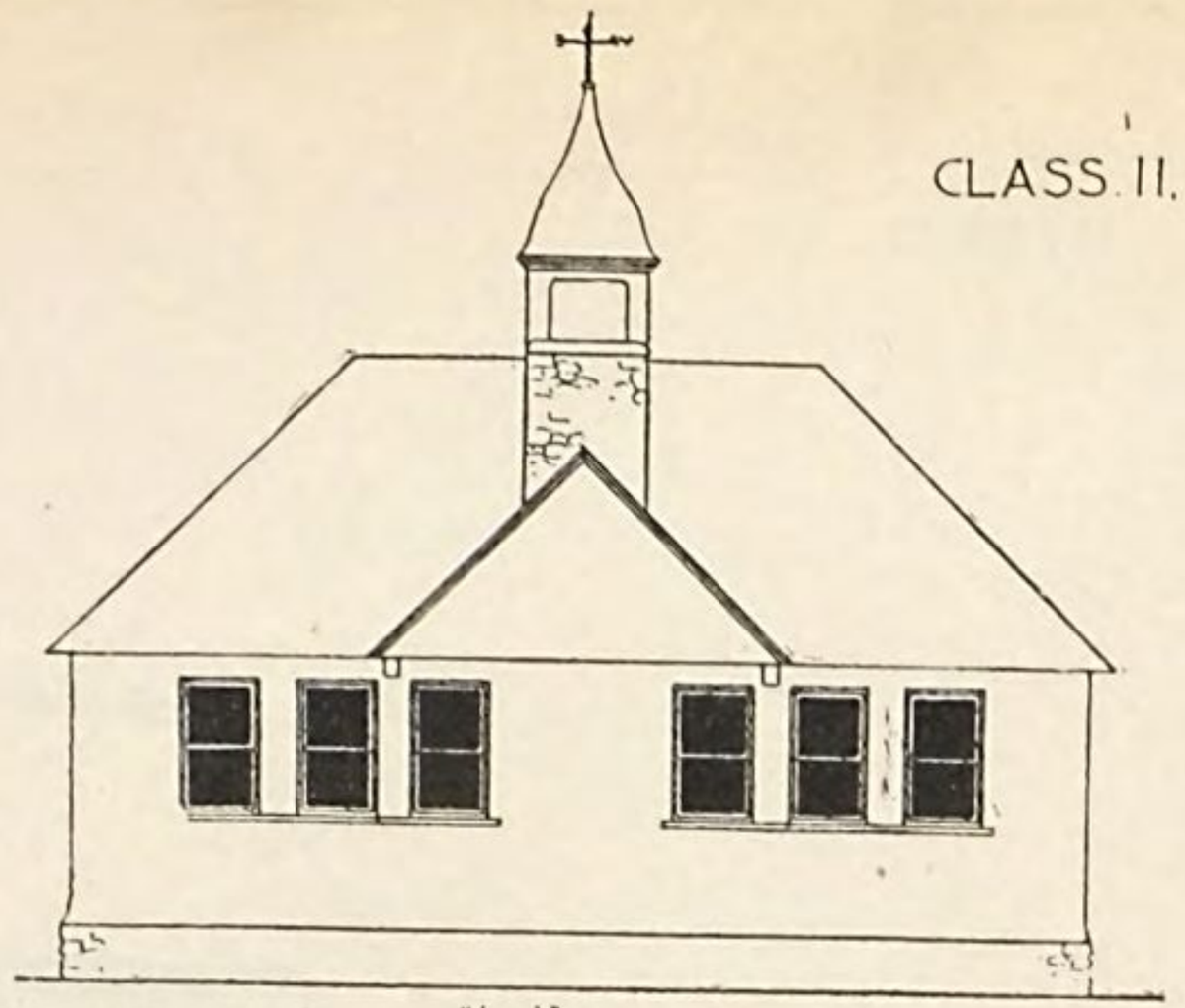
Fig. 21.

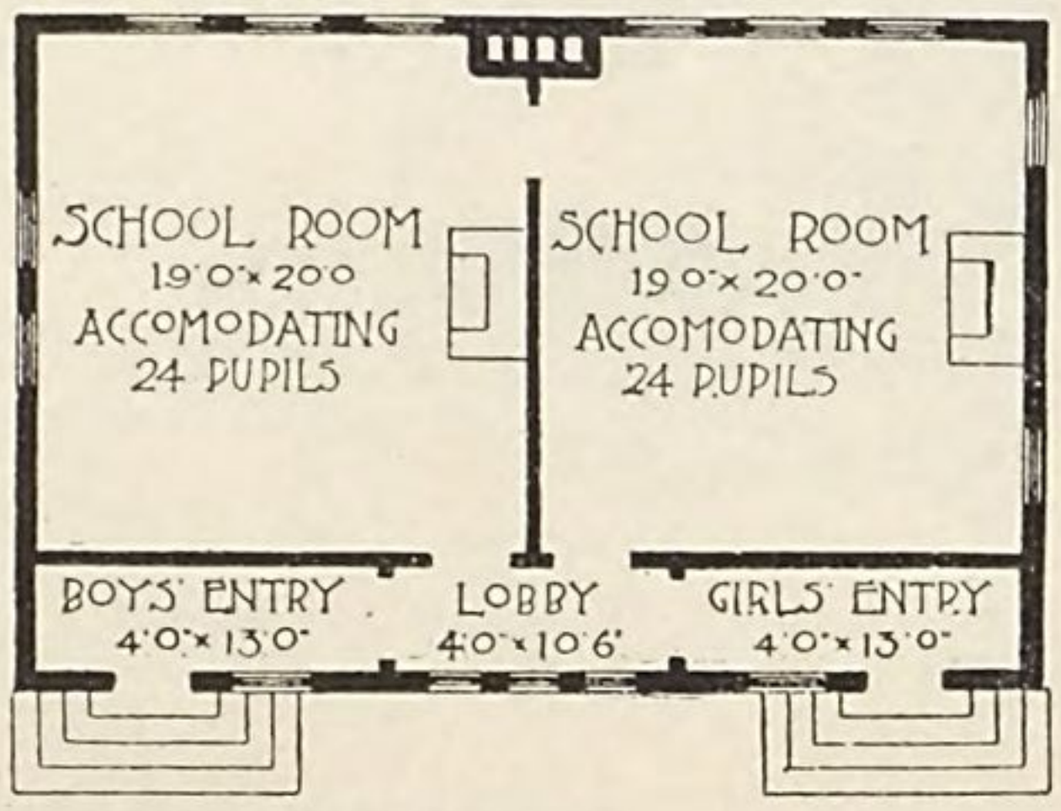
PLAN Nº8.

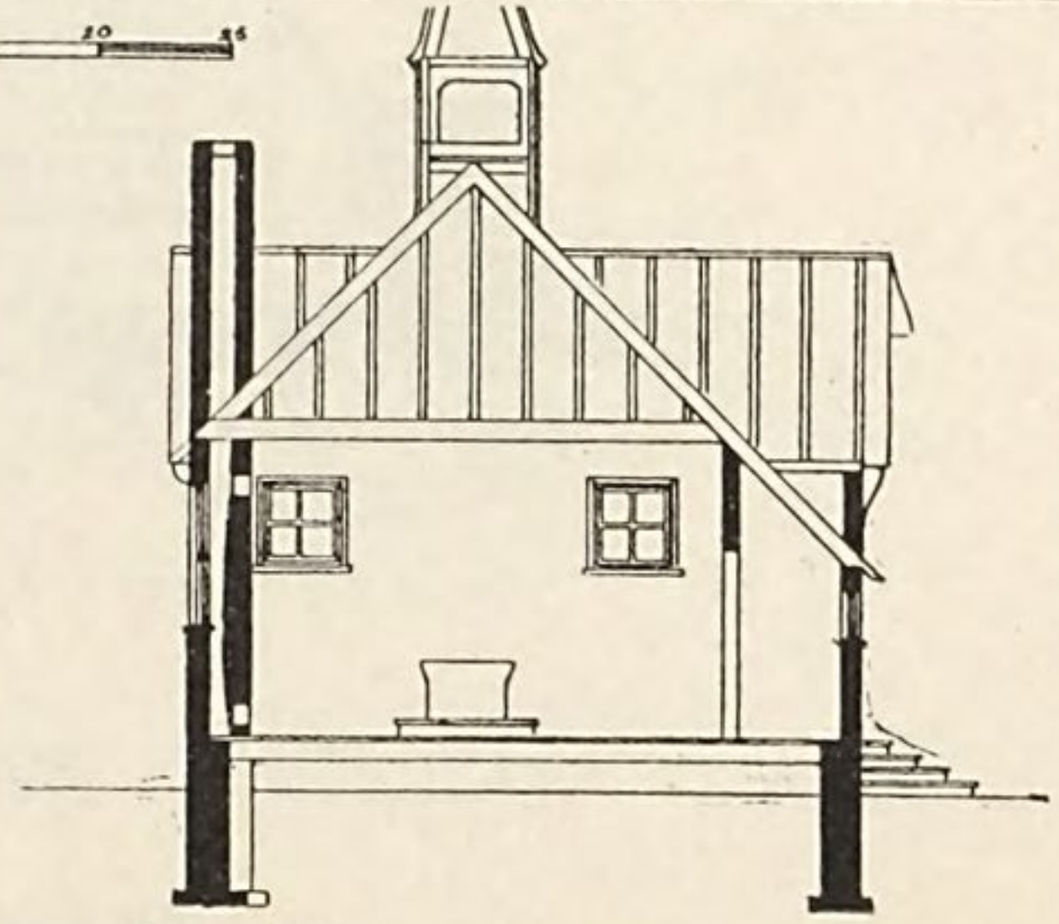
PLATE 2.

CLASS II.





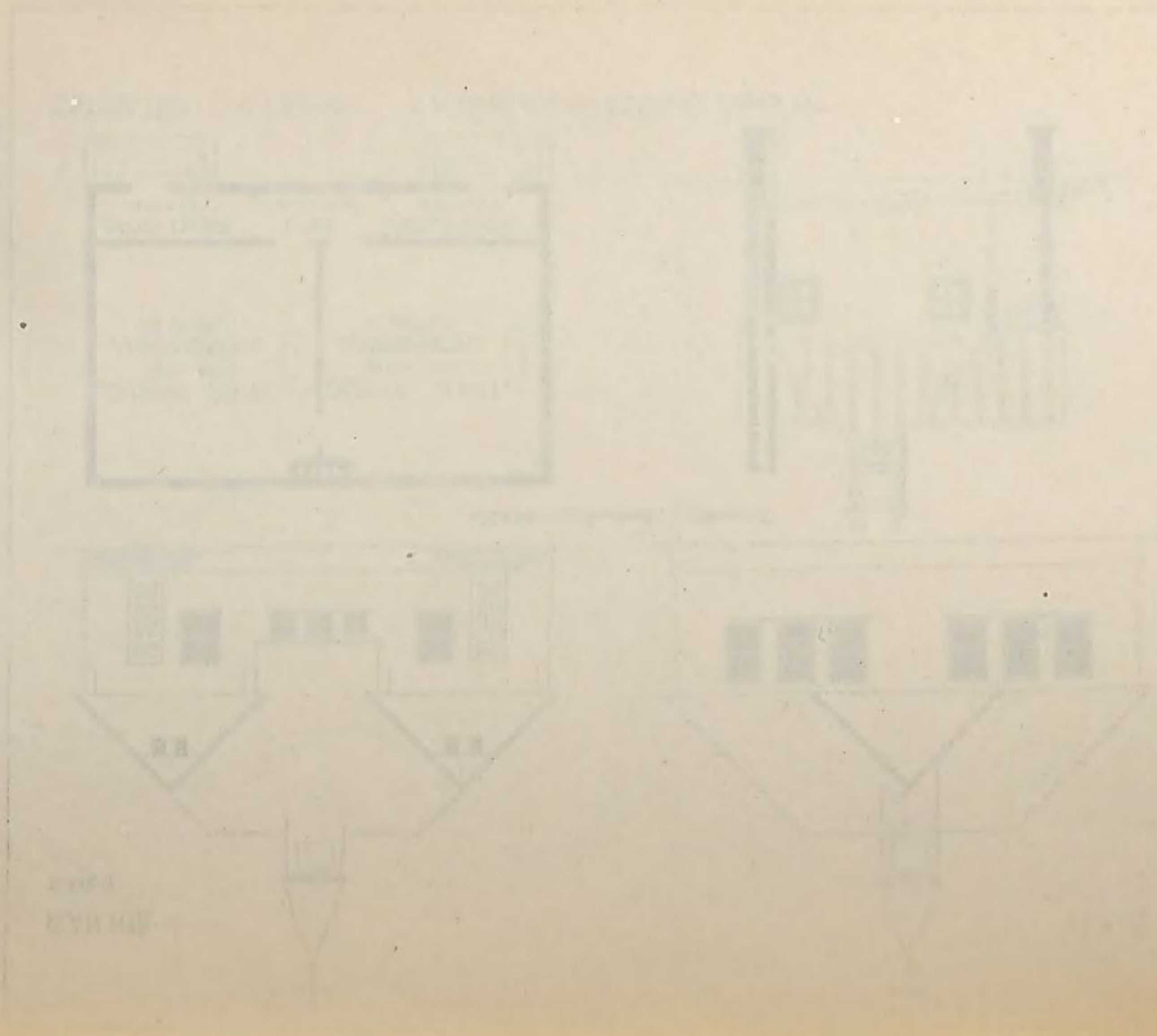




ESTIMATED COST $1100

C.A Heriot & Corliss McKinney. Albany. N.Y.

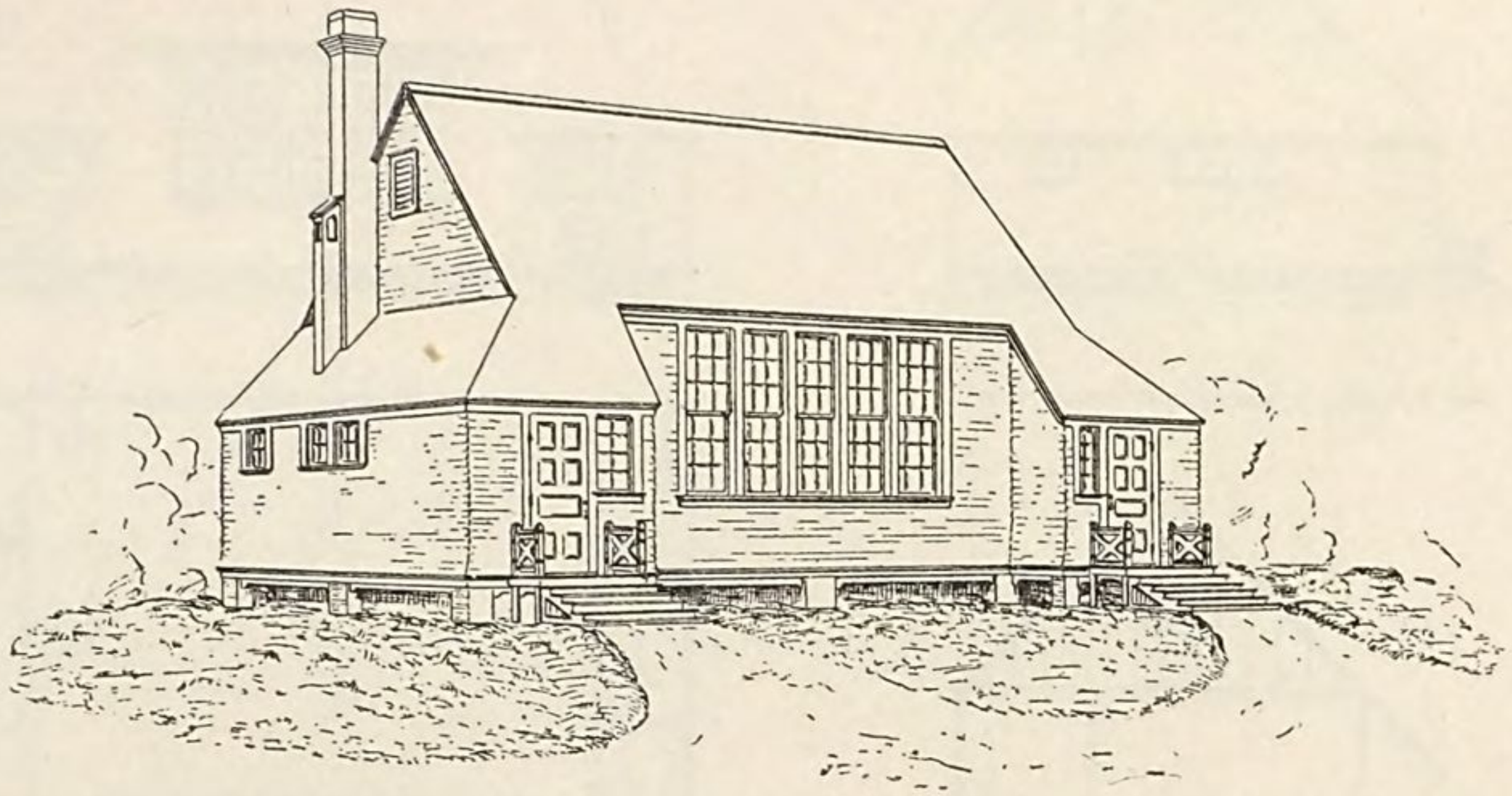
Fig. 22.



PLAN Nº 9

PLATE I

CLASS II



PERSPECTIVE

ESTIMATED COST $1100

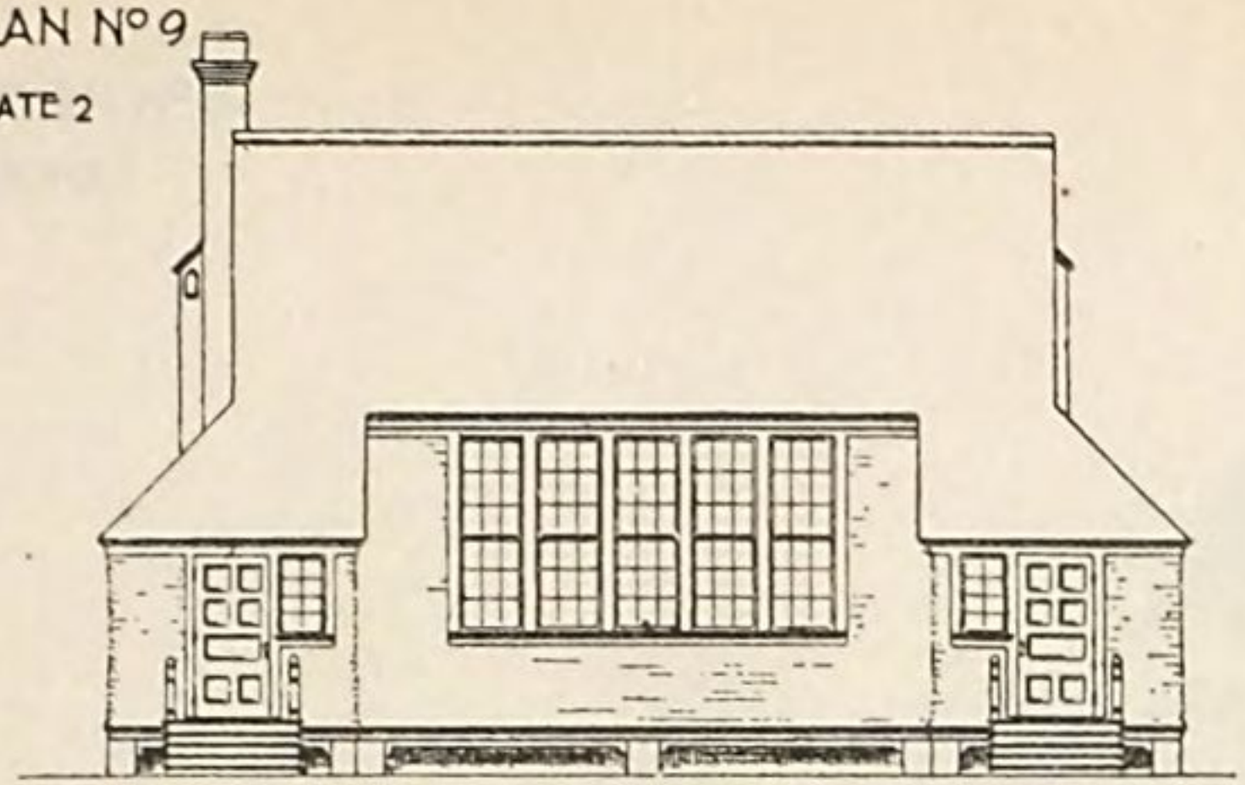
J. Frank Lyman. Yonkers. N.Y.

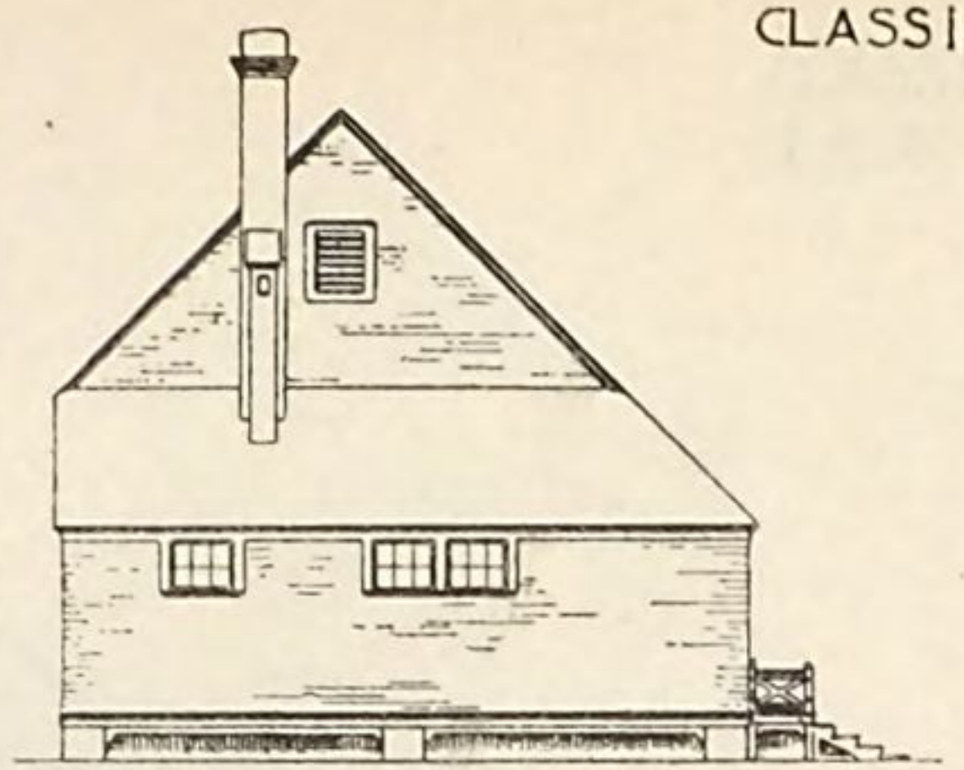
Fig. 23.

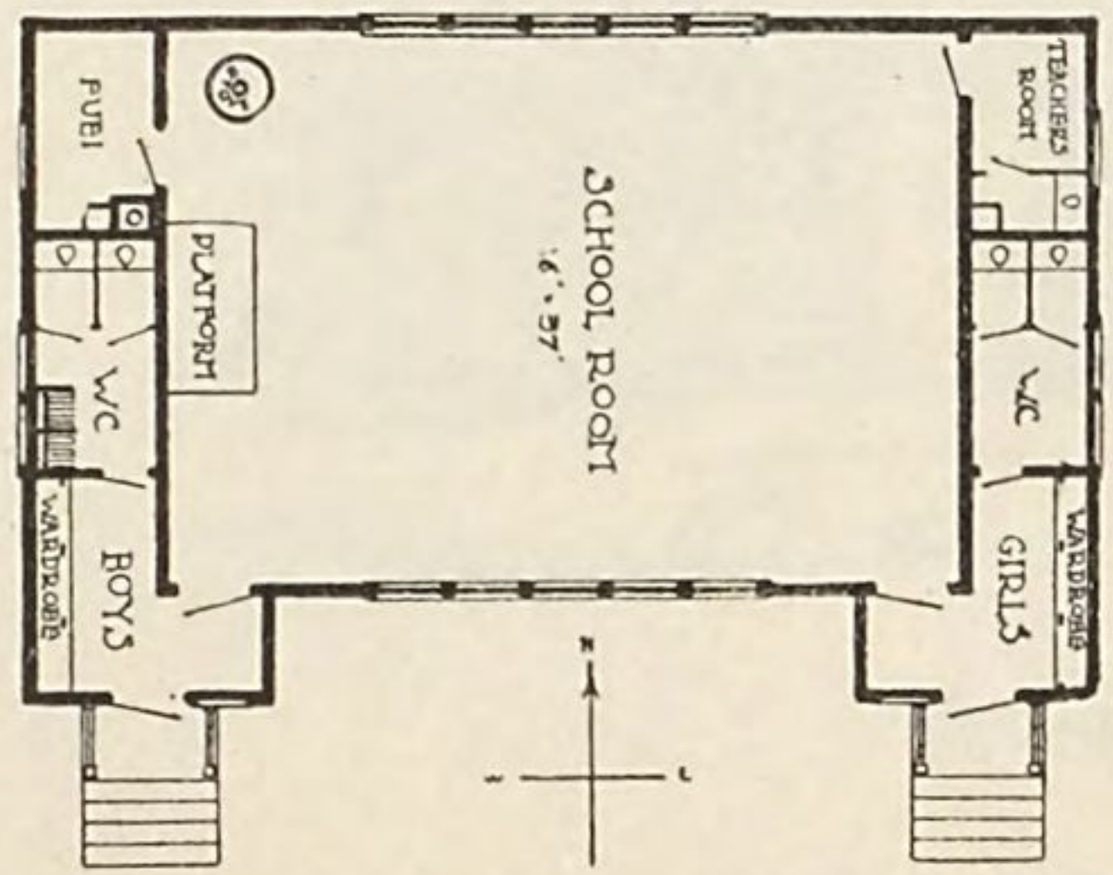
PLAN N° 9

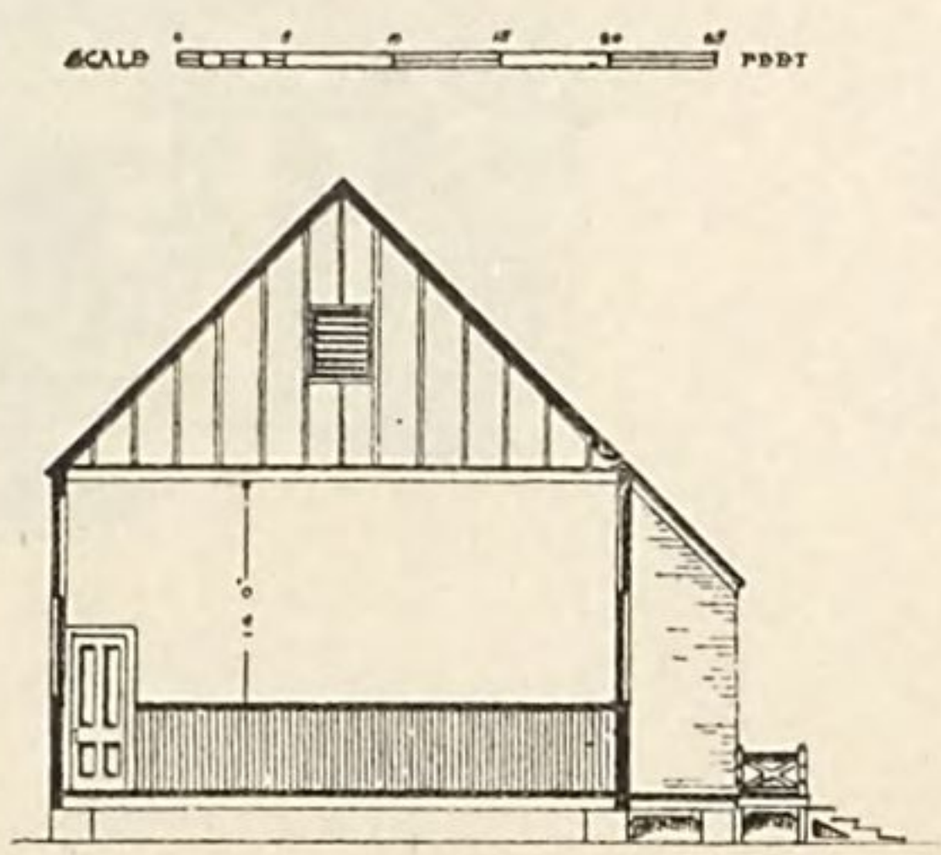
PLATE 2

CLASS II





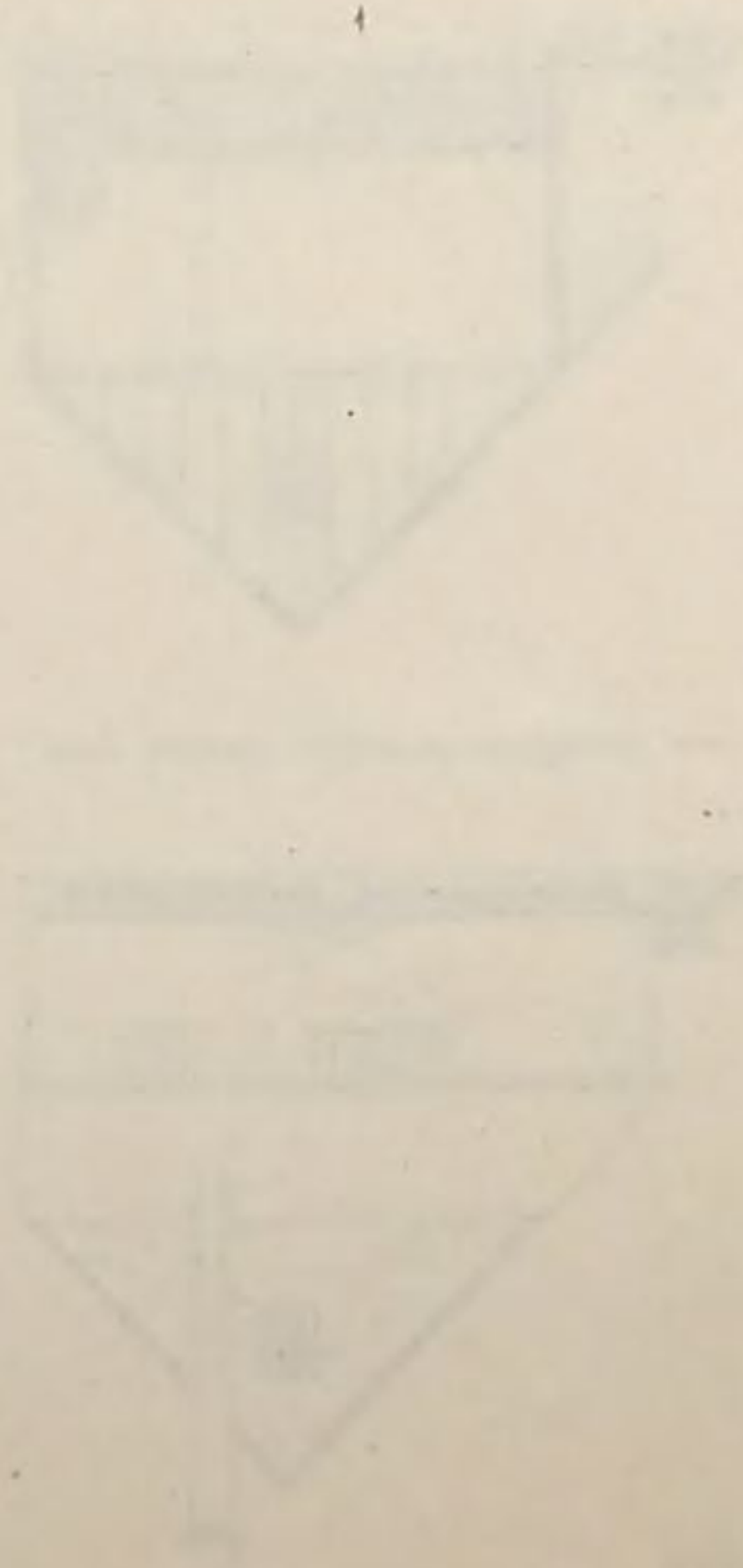




ESTIMATED COST $1100

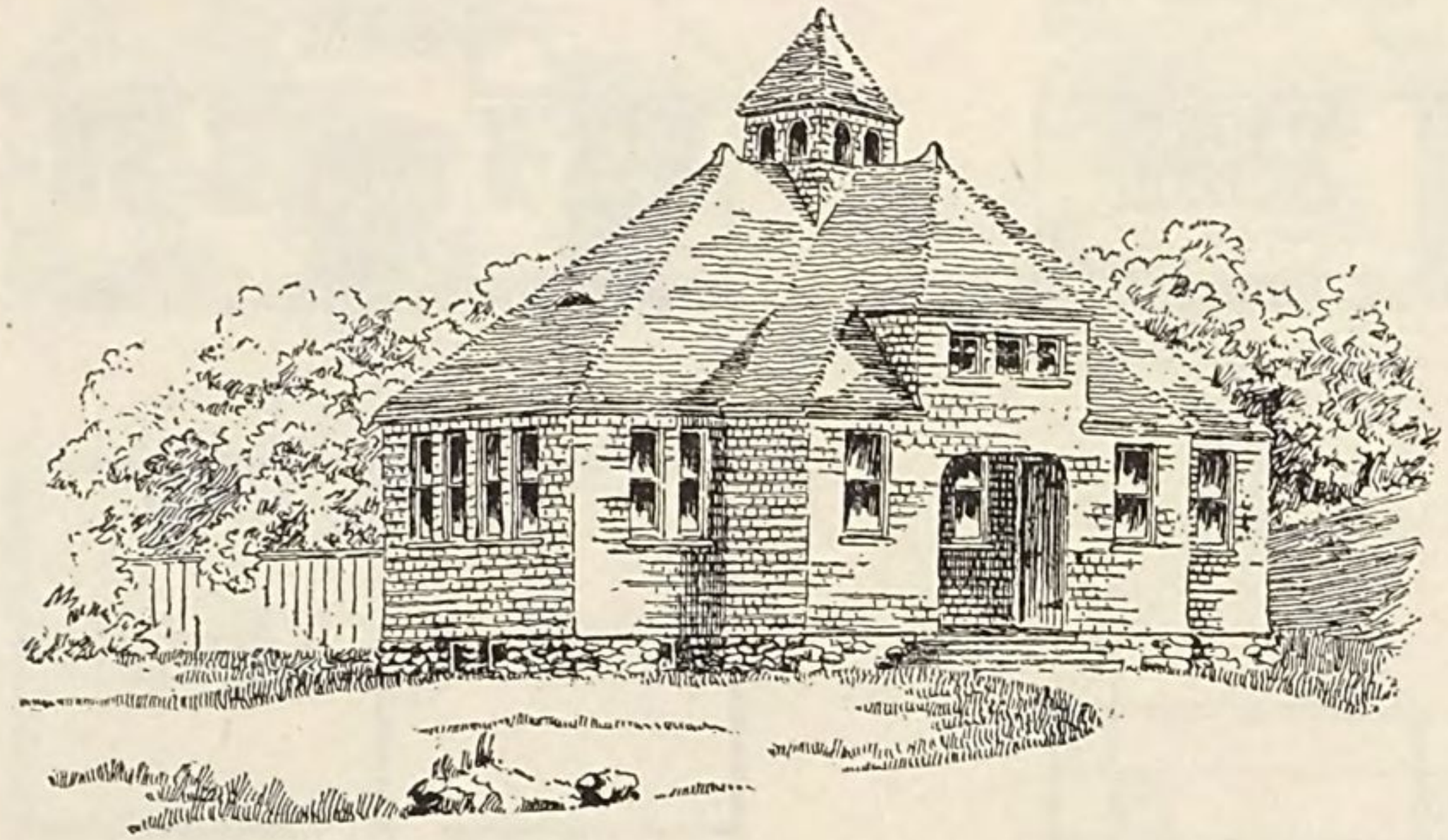
J. Frank Lyman Yonkers N.Y.

Fig. 4.



PLAN Nº 10
PLATE I

CLASS III.
$1500.



PERSPECTIVE

1ST PRIZE: J.C.A. Herlot & Corliss McKinney. Albany. N.Y.

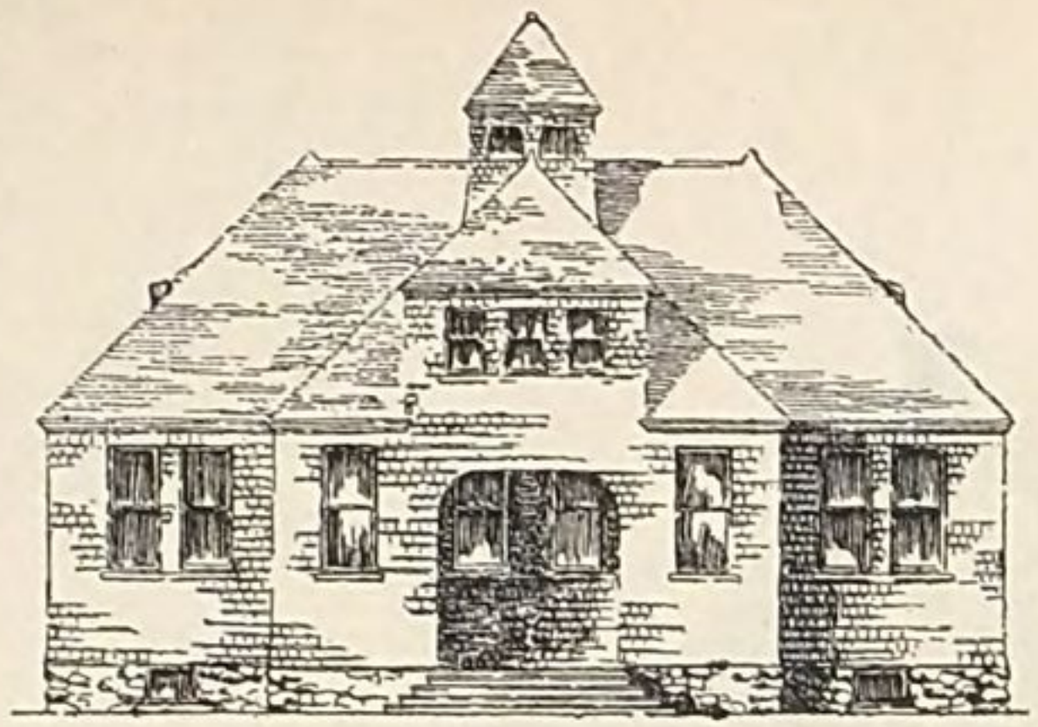
Fig. 25.

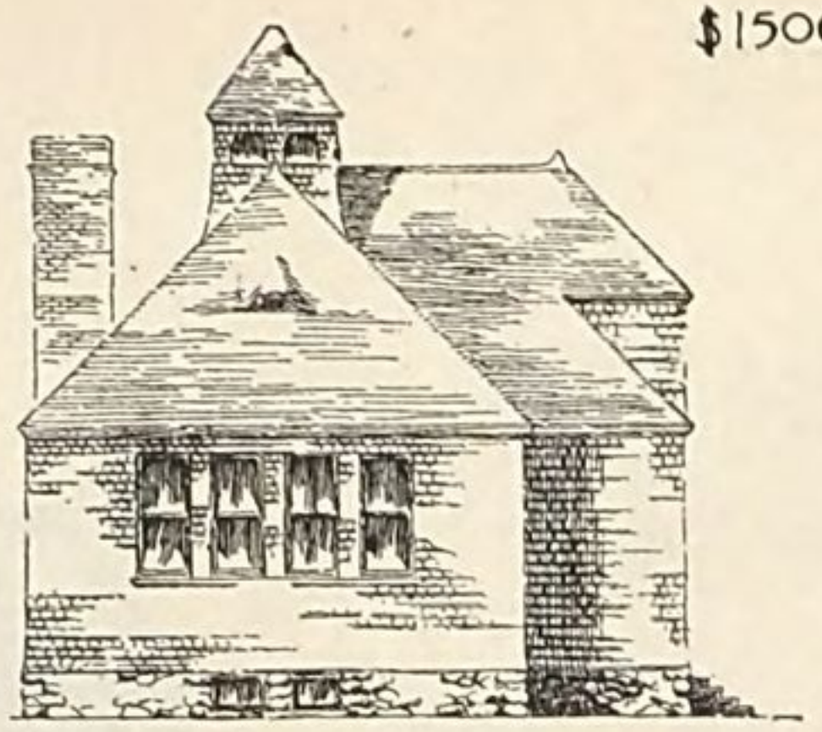
PLAN Nº 10

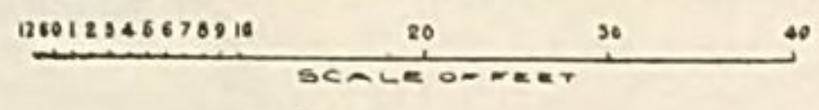
PLATE 2

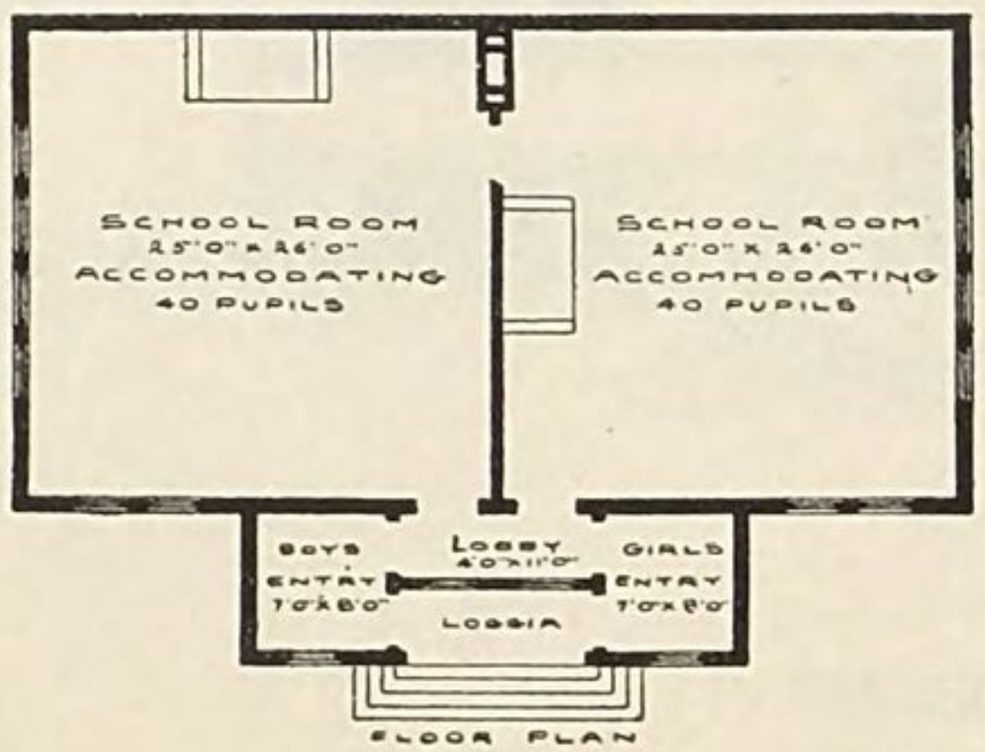
CLASS III

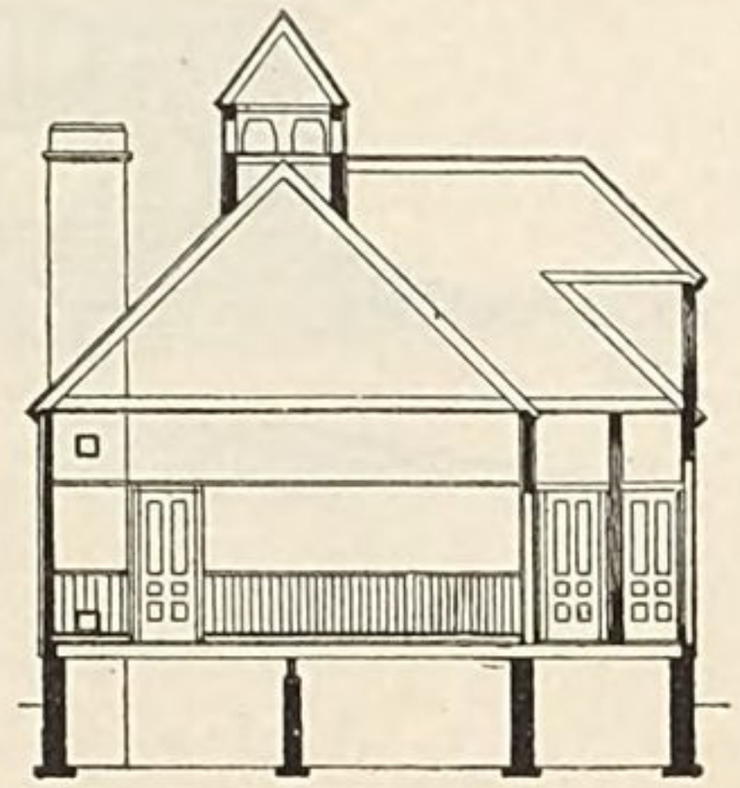
$1500.











IST PRIZE: J.C.A. Heriot & Corliss McKinney. Albany. N.Y.

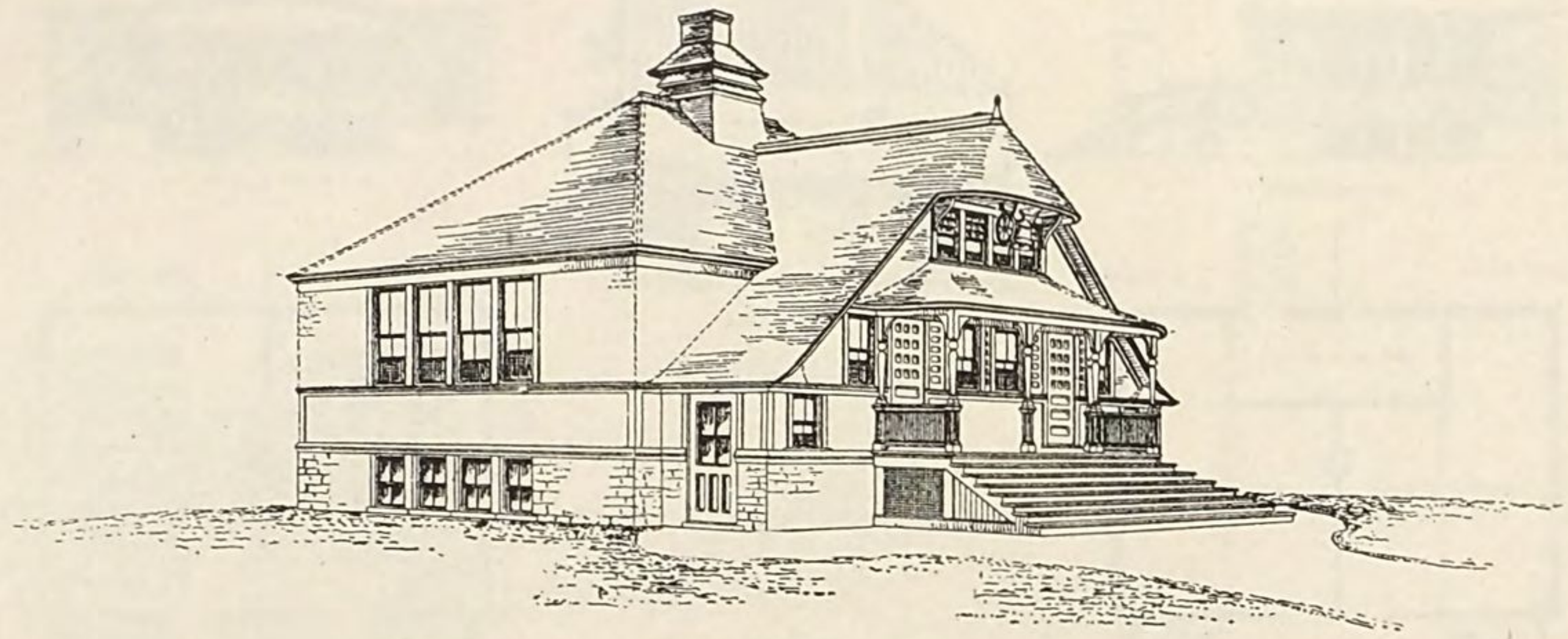
PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

Fig. 26.

PLAN Nº 11.

PLATE 1.

CLASS III



PERSPECTIVE

SPECIAL COMMENDATION.

Warren R. Briggs. Bridgeport. Conn

ESTIMATED COST $2000

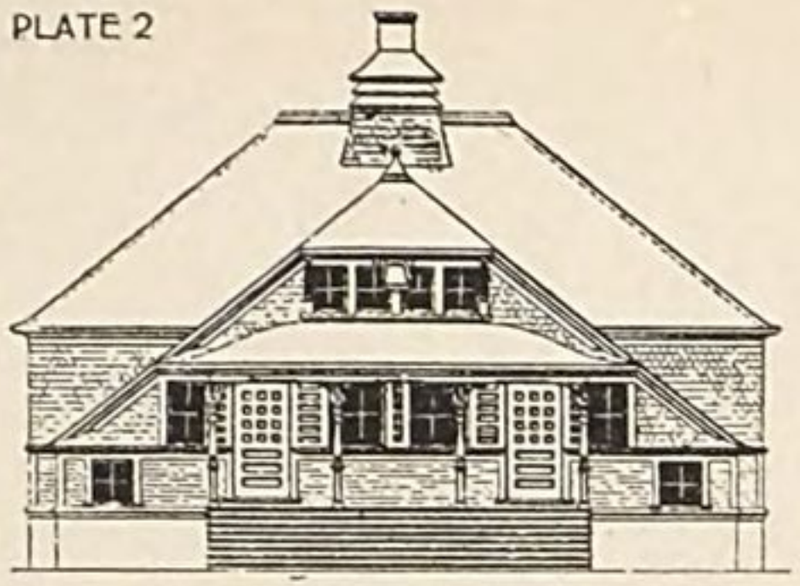
Fig. 27.

PLAN Nº 11

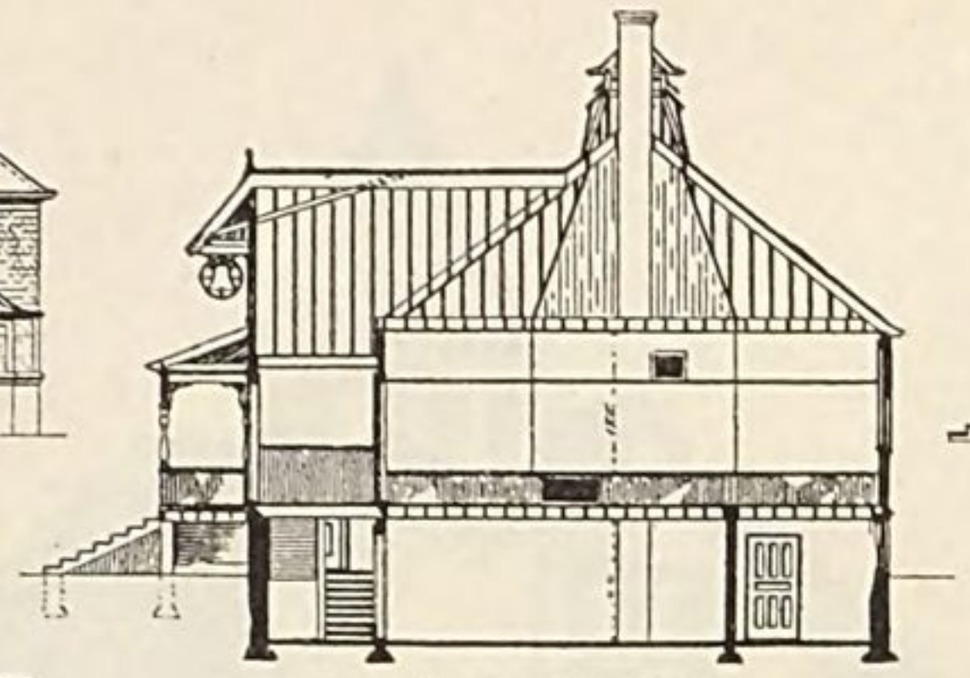
PLATE 2

CLASS III.

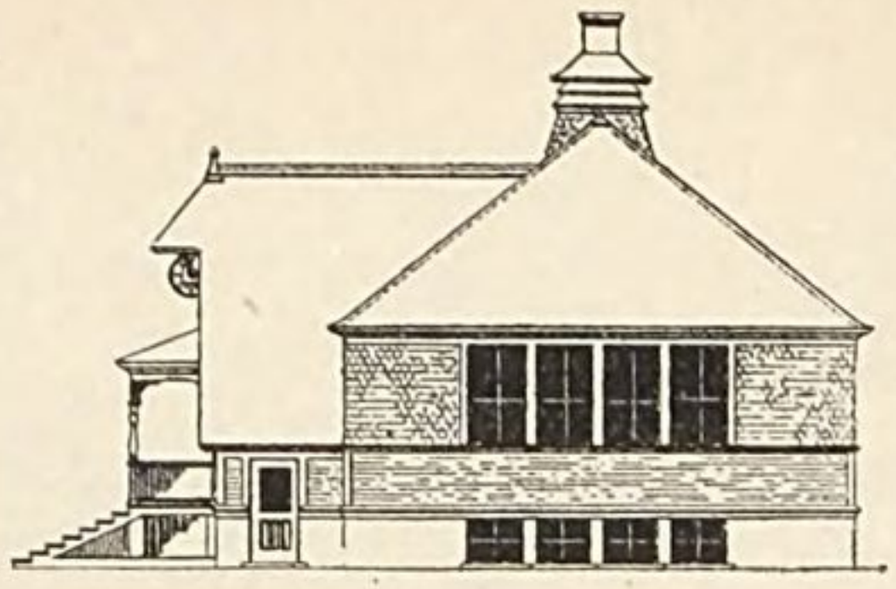
SPECIAL COMMENDATION.



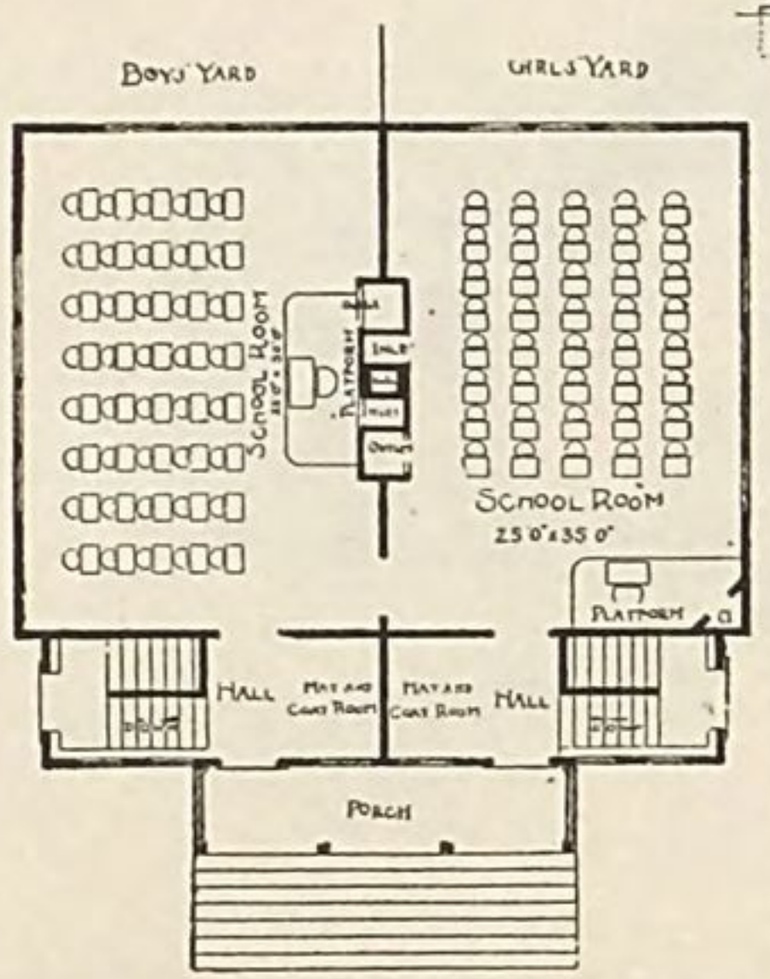
FRONT ELEVATION



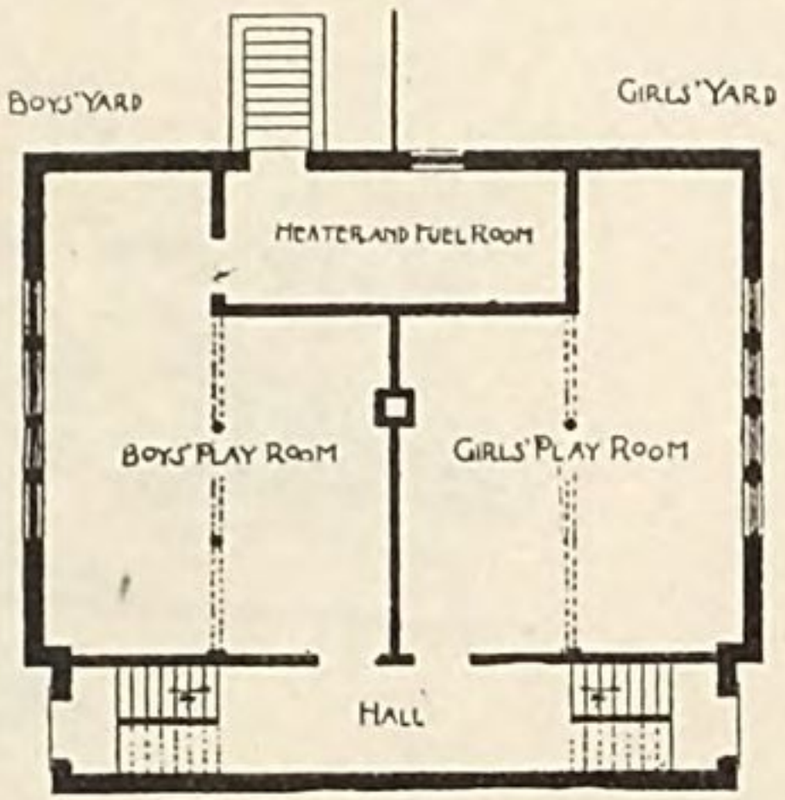
LONGITUDINAL SECTION



SIDE ELEVATION



FIRST STORY PLAN



BASEMENT PLAN

Warren R. Briggs. Bridgeport. Conn.

ESTIMATED COST $2000

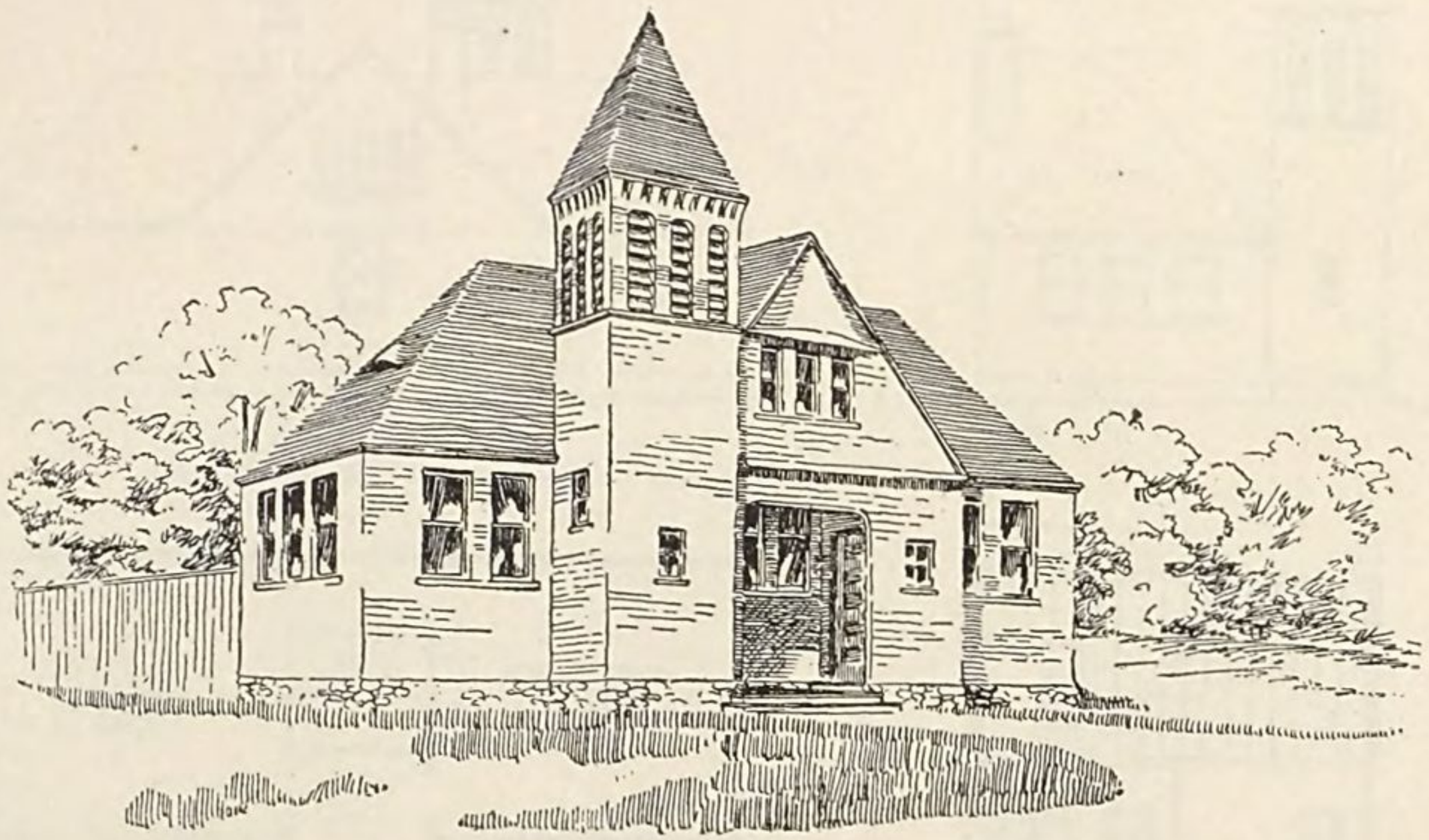
PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

Fig. 28.

PLAN N° 12

PLATE I

CLASS IV.



PERSPECTIVE

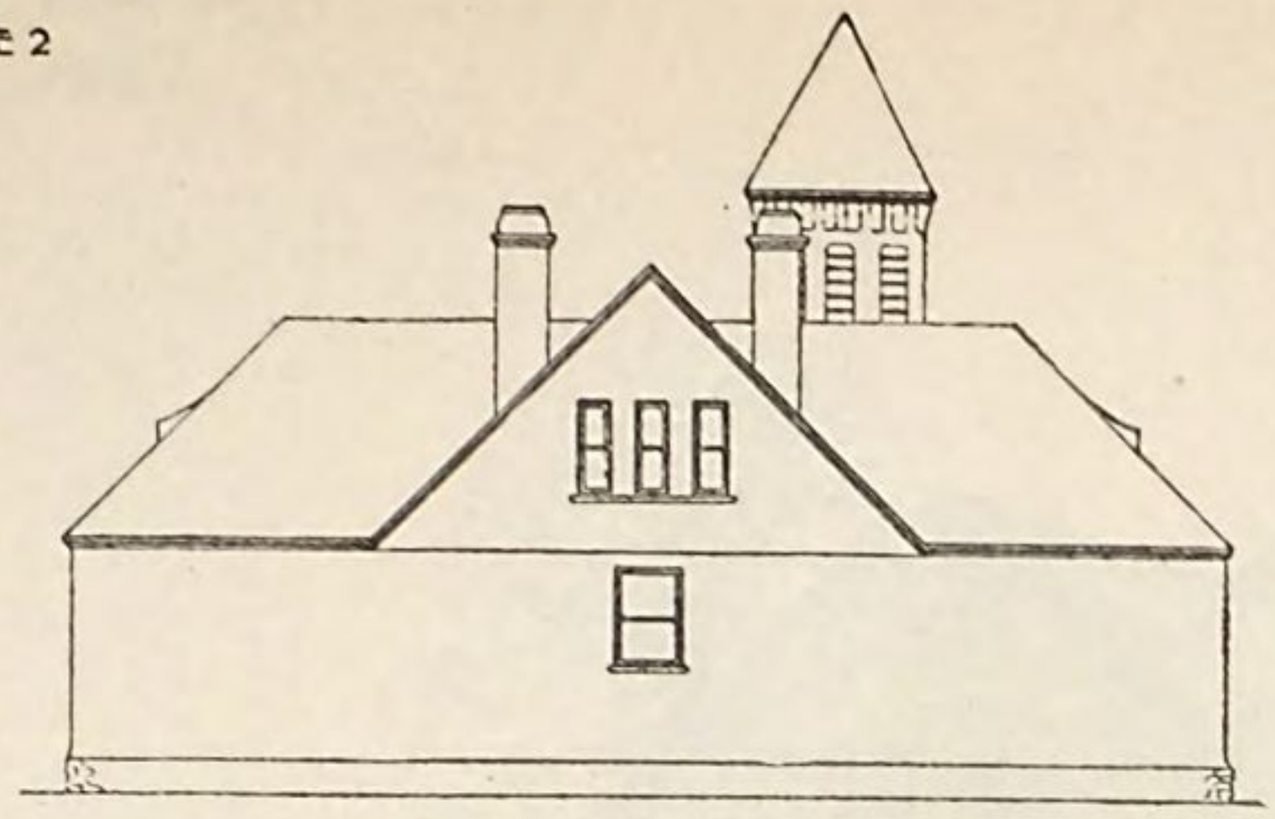
ESTIMATED COST $ 2500 J.C.A. Heriot & Corliss McKinney. Albany. N.Y.

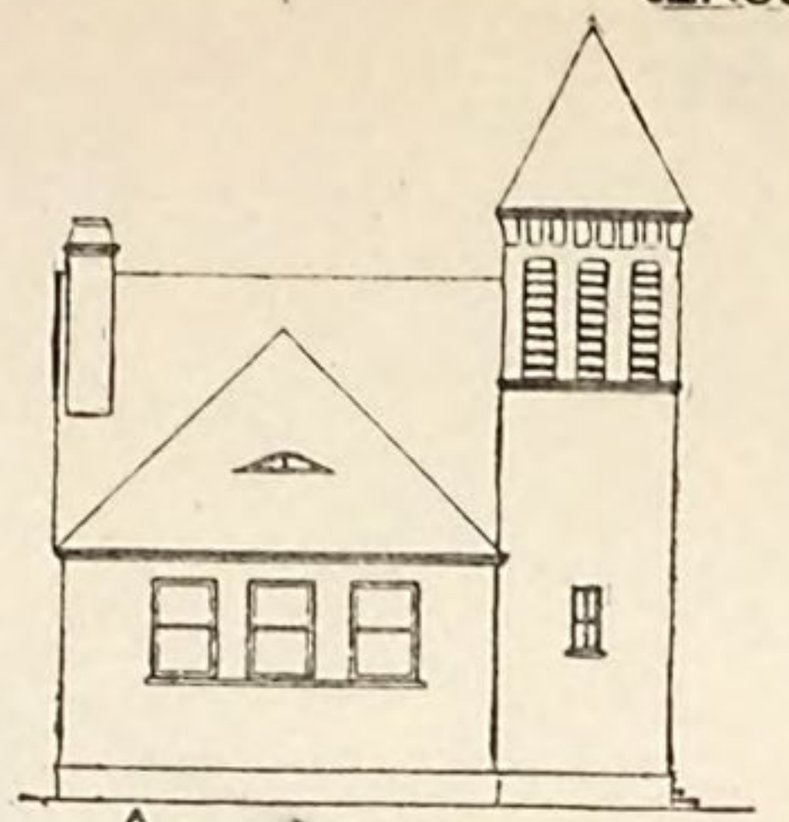
Fig. 29.

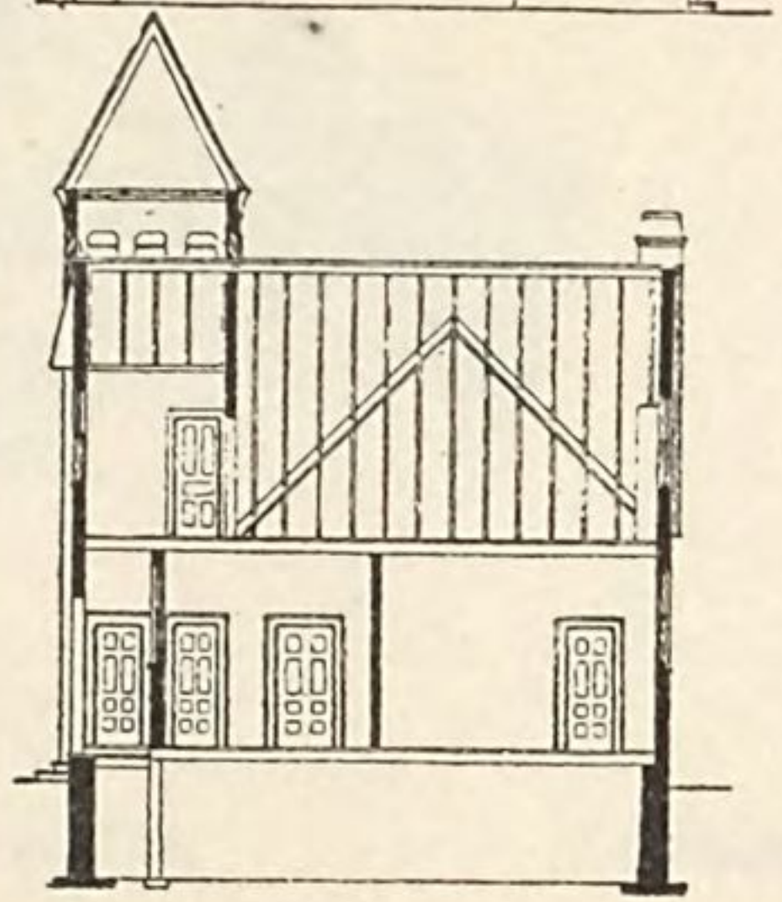
PLAN N°12

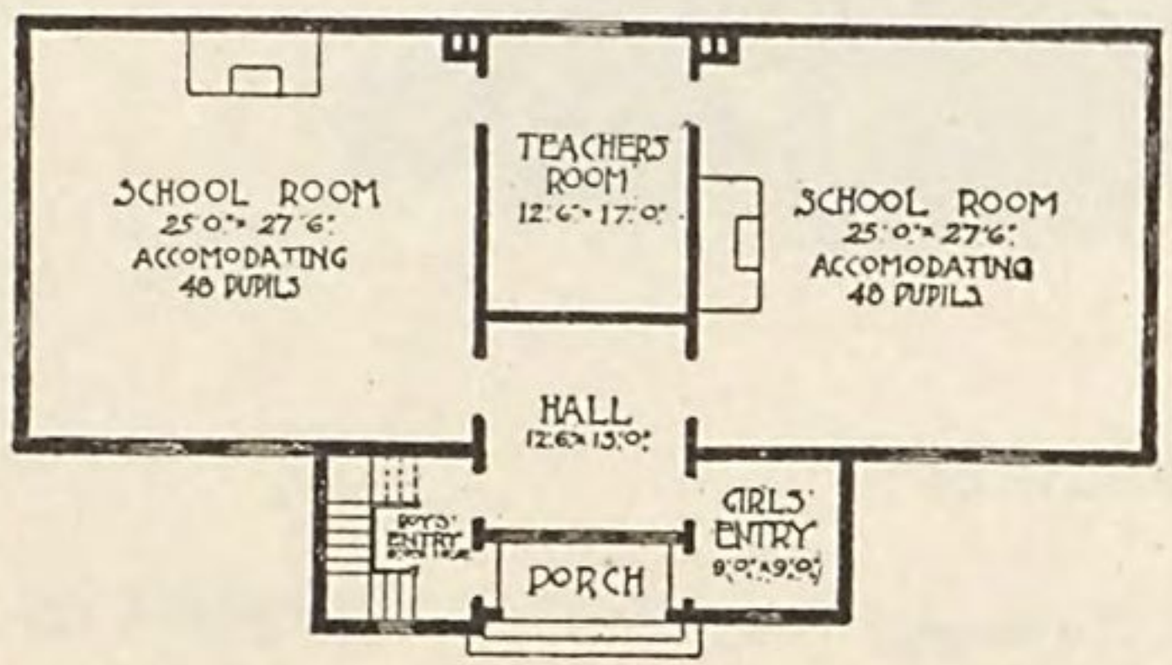
PLATE 2

CLASS IV.









ESTIMATED COST $ 2500. J.C.A. Heriot & Corliss McKinney. Albany. N.Y.

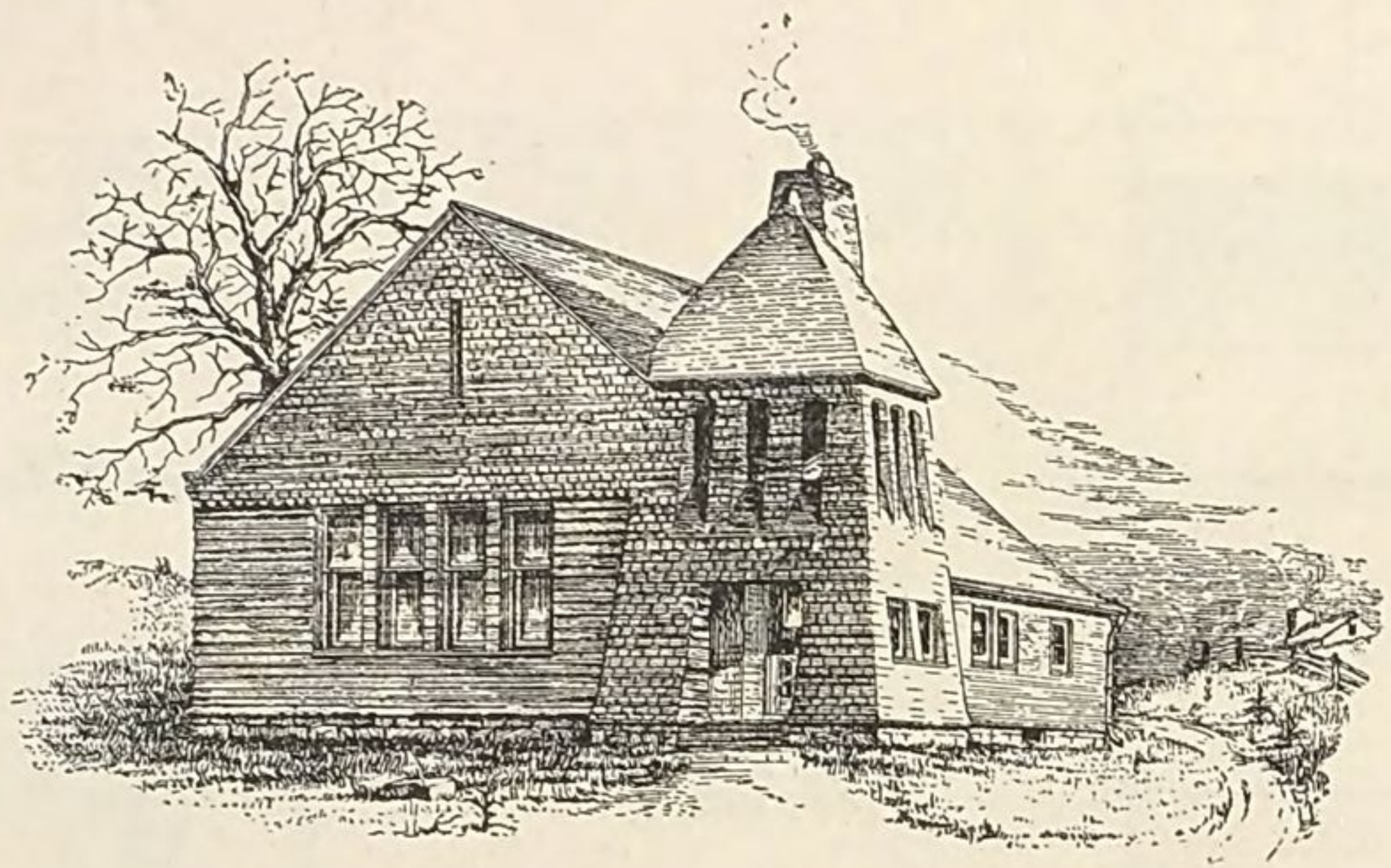
Fig. 30.

PLAN Nº 13

PLATE 1

CLASS IV

$2500



PERSPECTIVE

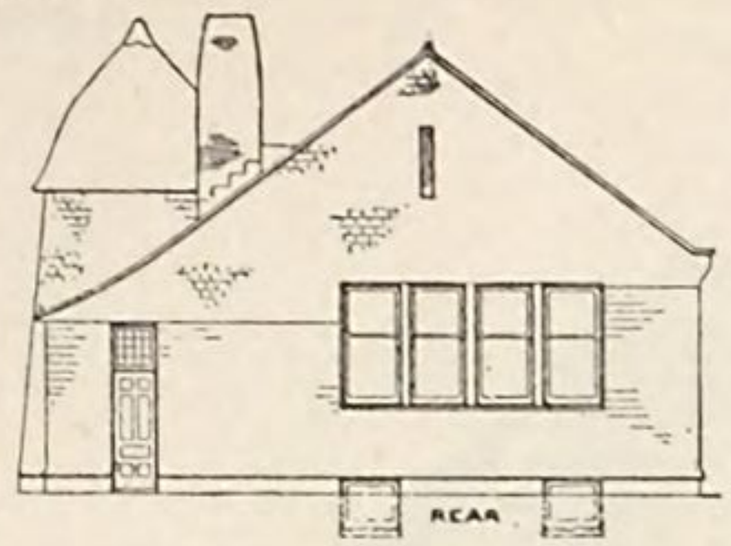
1ST PRIZE: Wm. P Appleyard & E. A Bowd Lansing. Mich. [DOTHEBOYS]

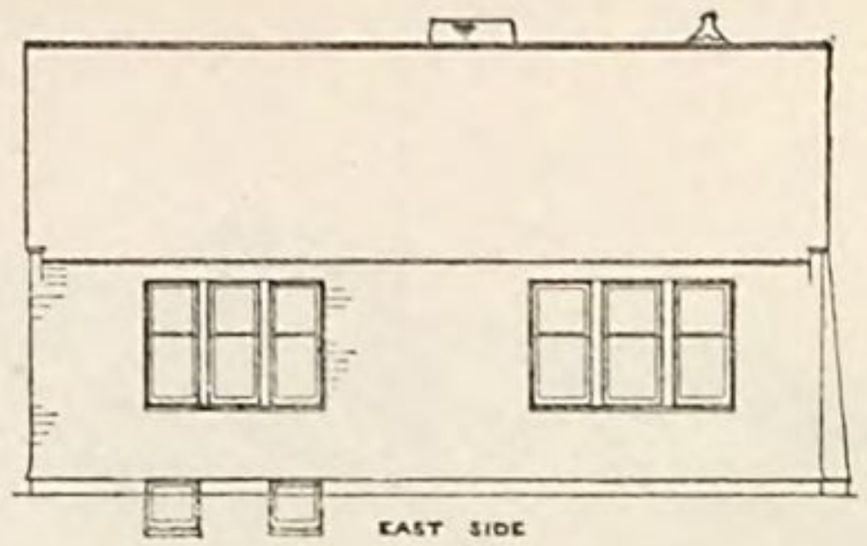
Fig. 31.

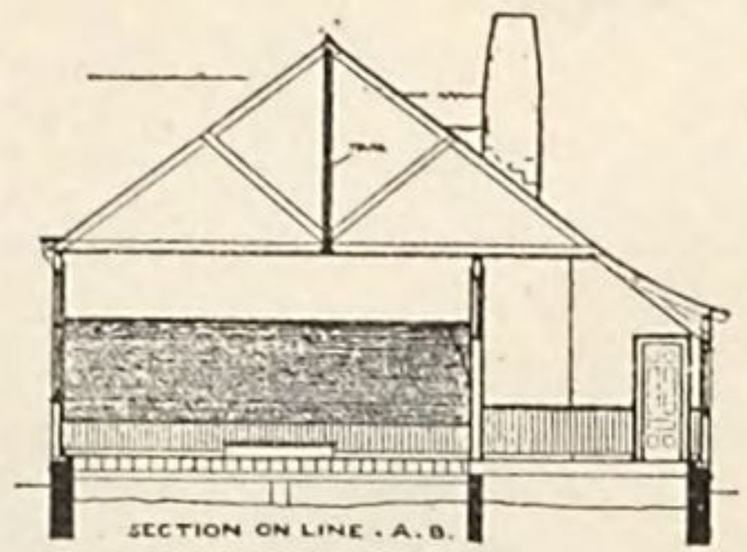
PLAN N°13

PLATE 2

CLASS IV
$2500



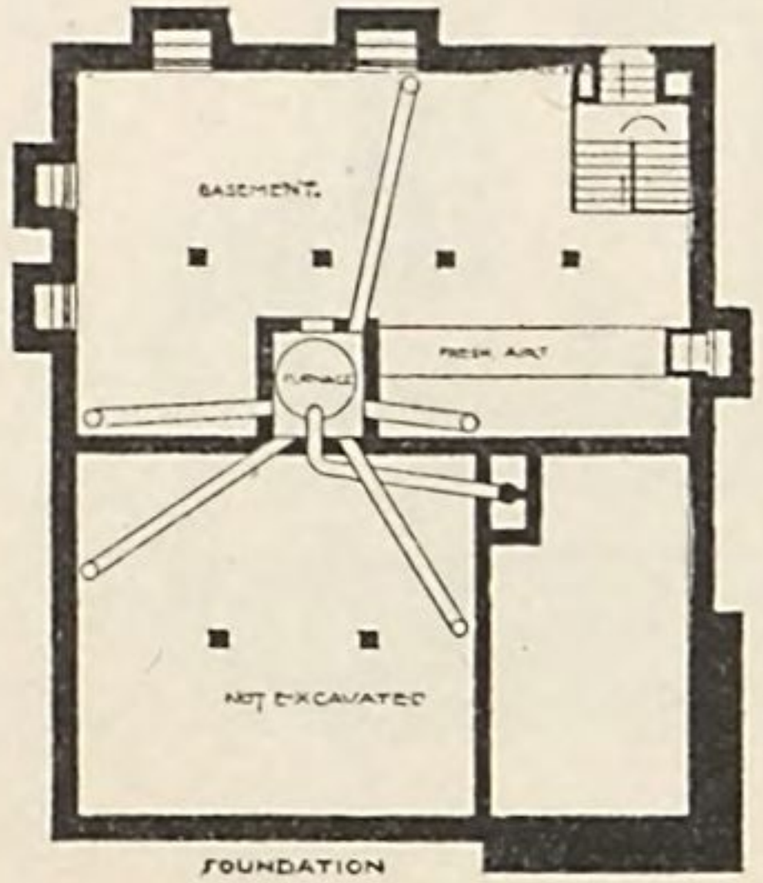


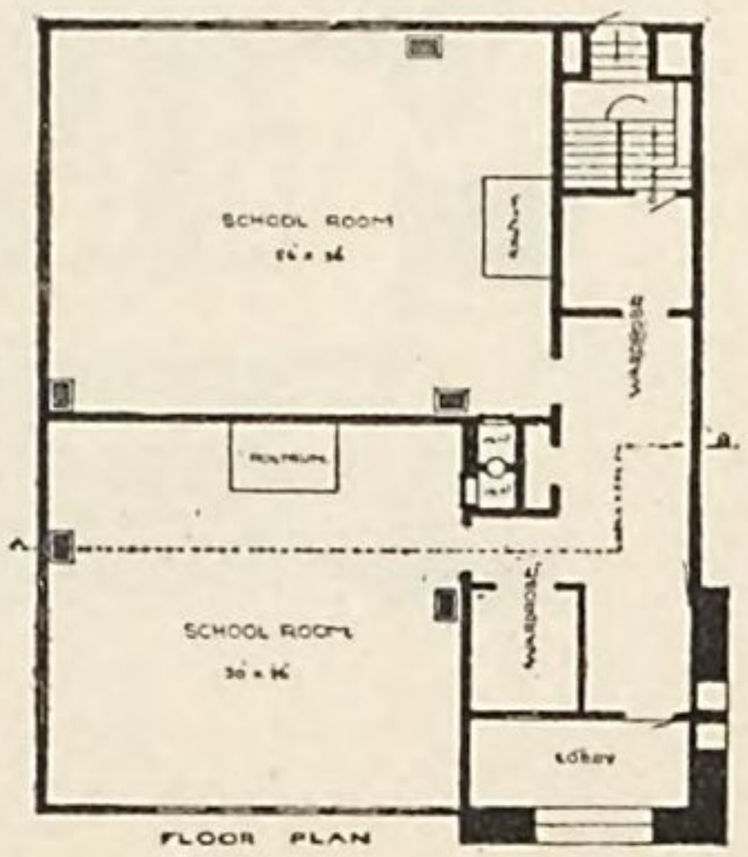


Scale 0 5 10 15 20 feet

1ST PRIZE:

Wm. P. Appleyard & E. A. Bowd. Lansing. Mich.
["DOTHEBOYS"]





PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

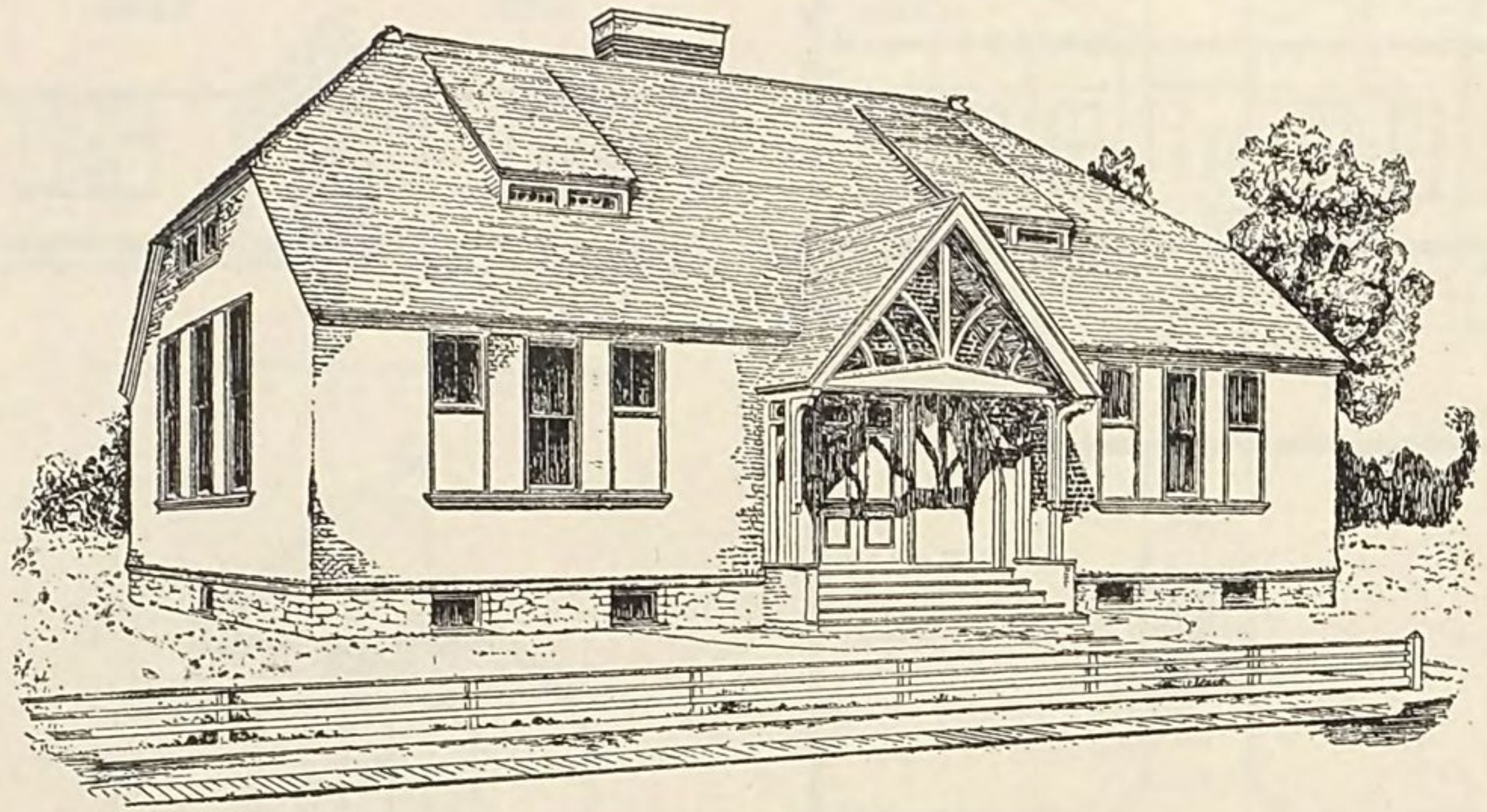
Fig. 32.

PLAN Nº 14

PLATE I

CLASS IV.

$2500.



PERSPECTIVE

2ND PRIZE: John R. Church. Rochester. N.Y.

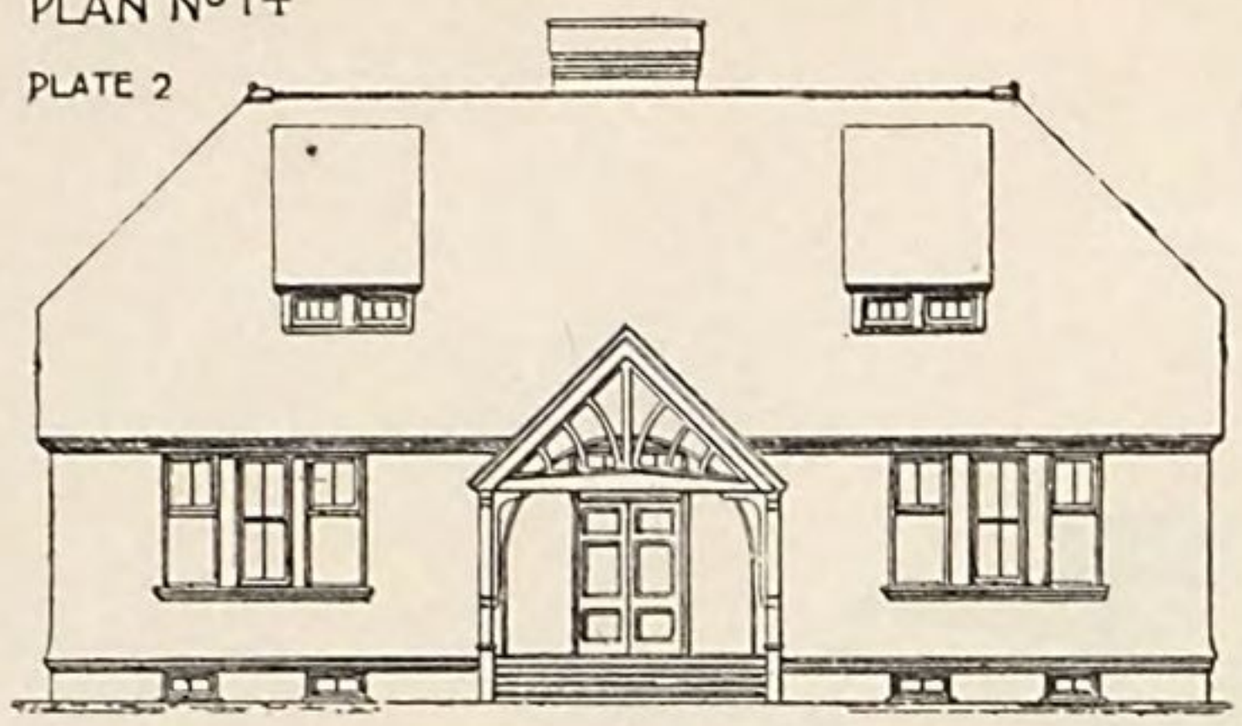
Fig. 33.

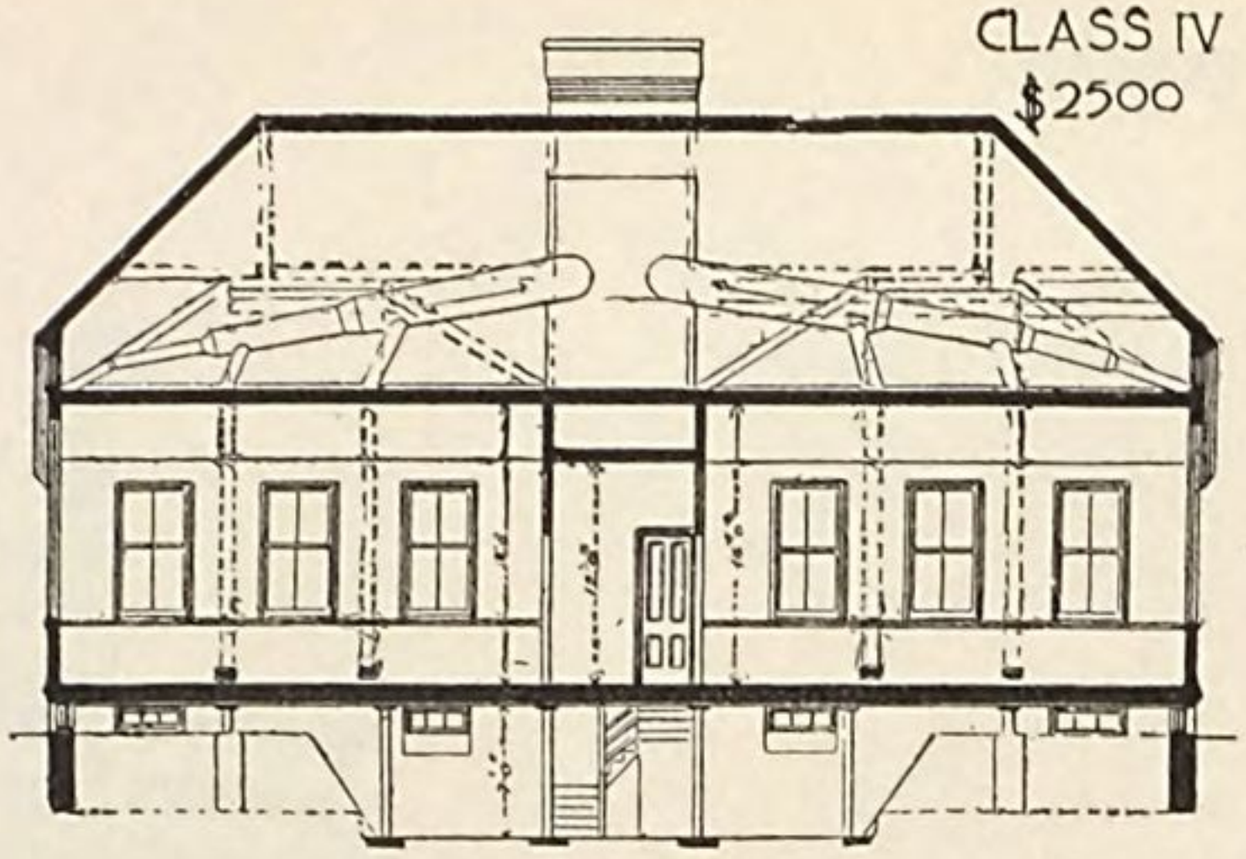
PLAN Nº 14

PLATE 2

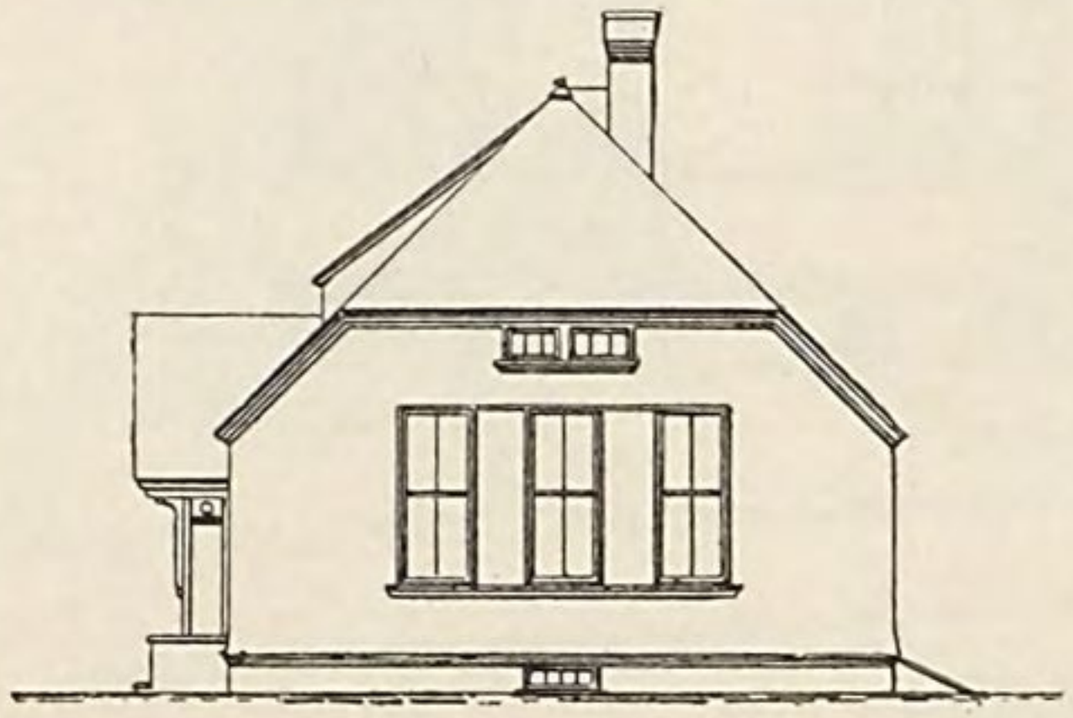
CLASS IV

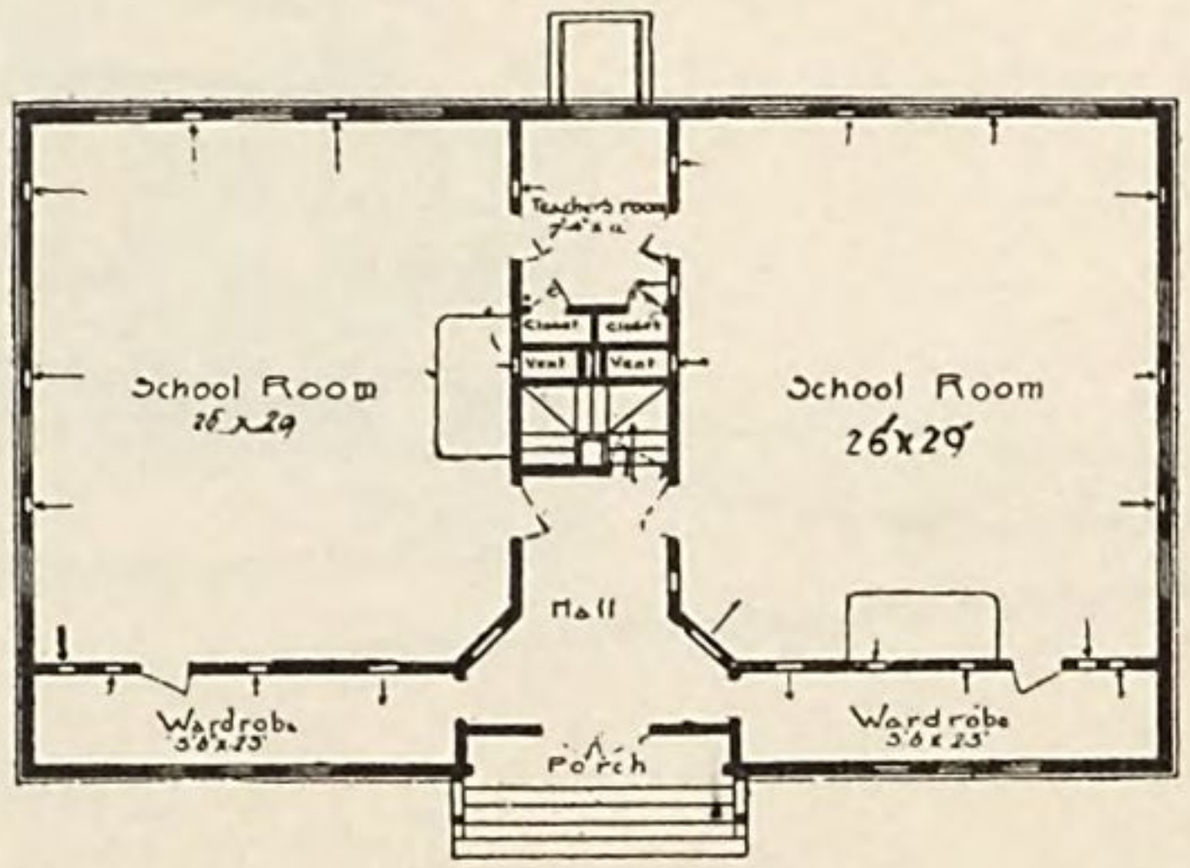
$2500





Scale. 0 5 10 15 20 25 Feet





2ND PRIZE : John R Church. Rochester N.Y

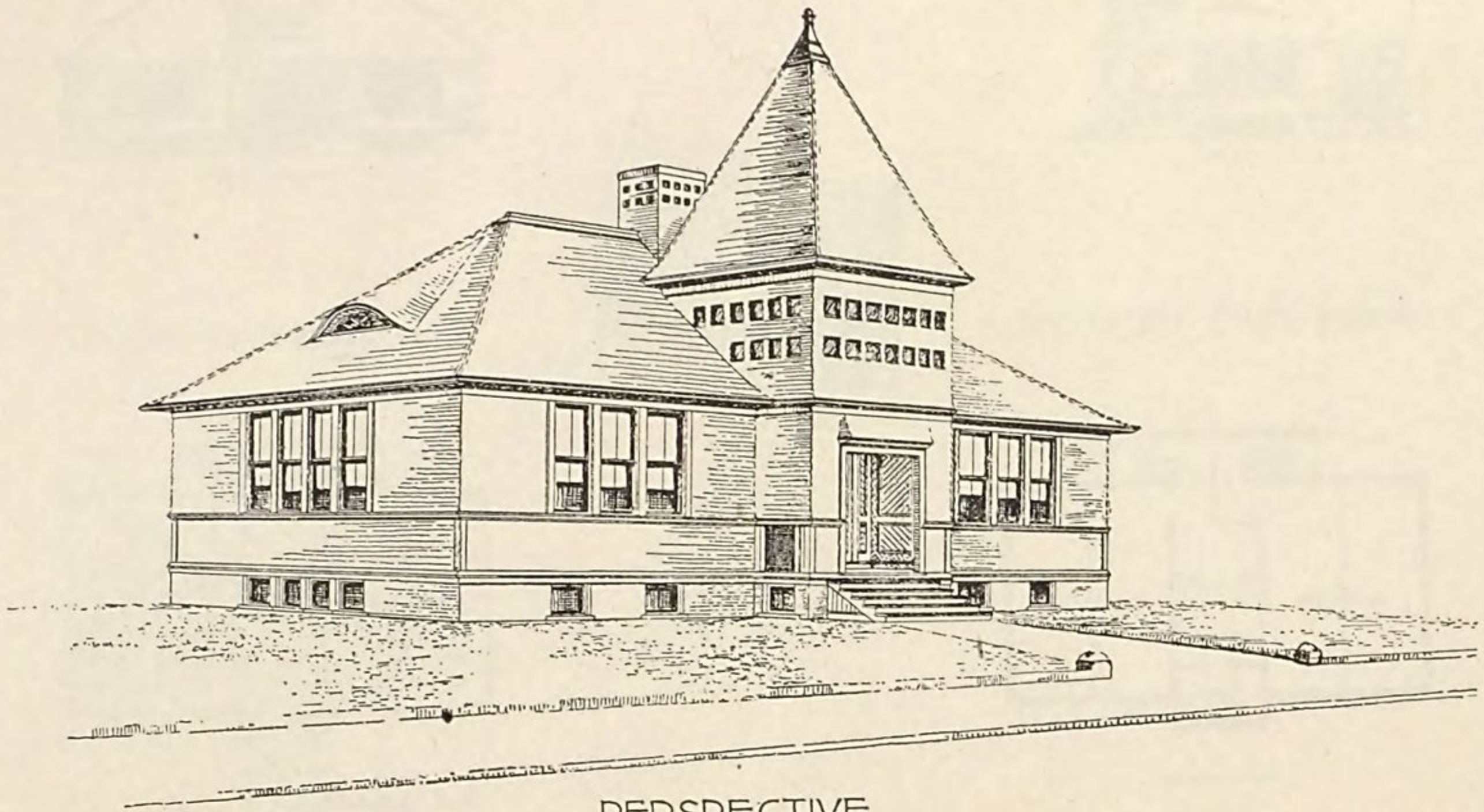
PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

Fig. 34.

PLAN Nº 15

PLATE I

CLASS IV



PERSPECTIVE

SPECIAL COMMENDATION

Warren R. Briggs. Bridgeport. Conn.
"NVTMEG"

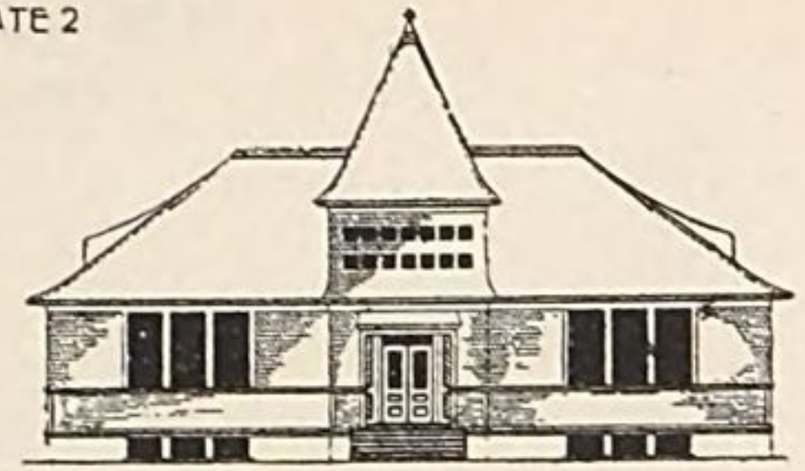
ESTIMATED COST $2800

Fig. 35.

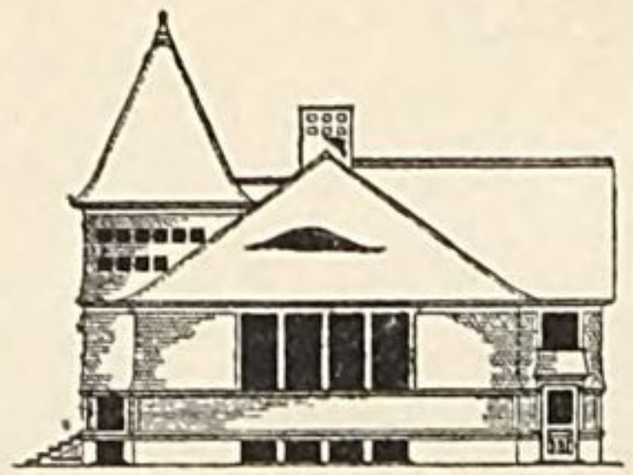
PLAN Nº15

PLATE 2

CLASS IV.



FRONT ELEVATION

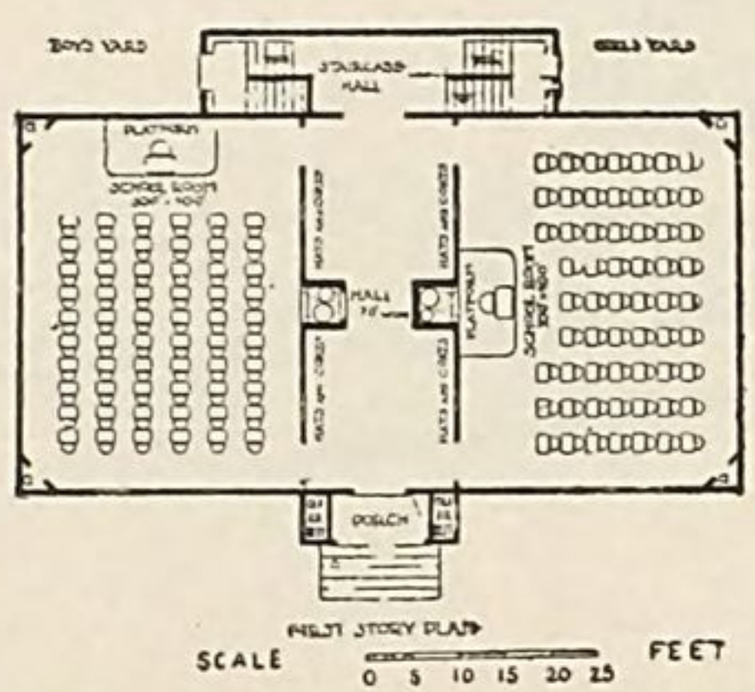


SIDE ELEVATION

LONGITUDINAL SECTION

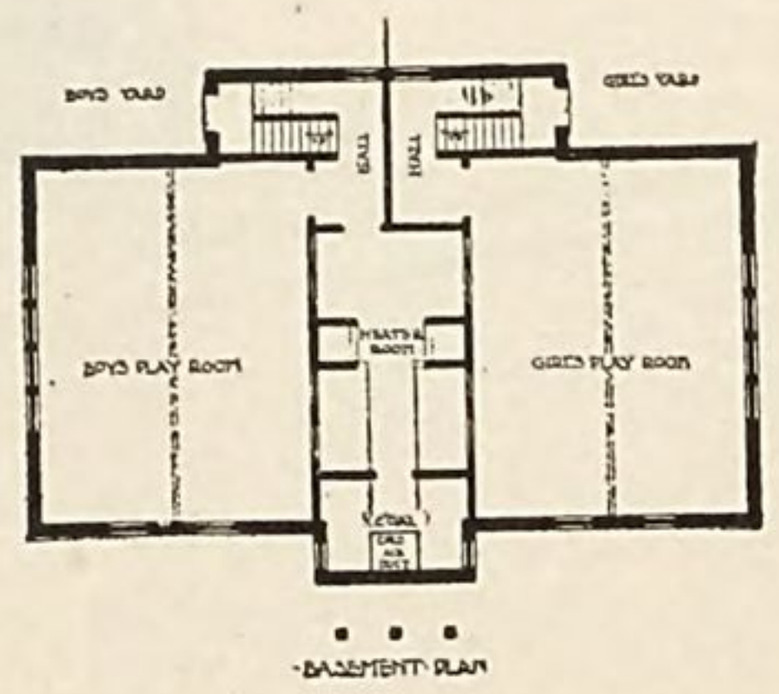
SPECIAL COMMENDATION

ESTIMATED COST $2800



Warren R Briggs. Bridgeport. Conn

["NUTMEG"]



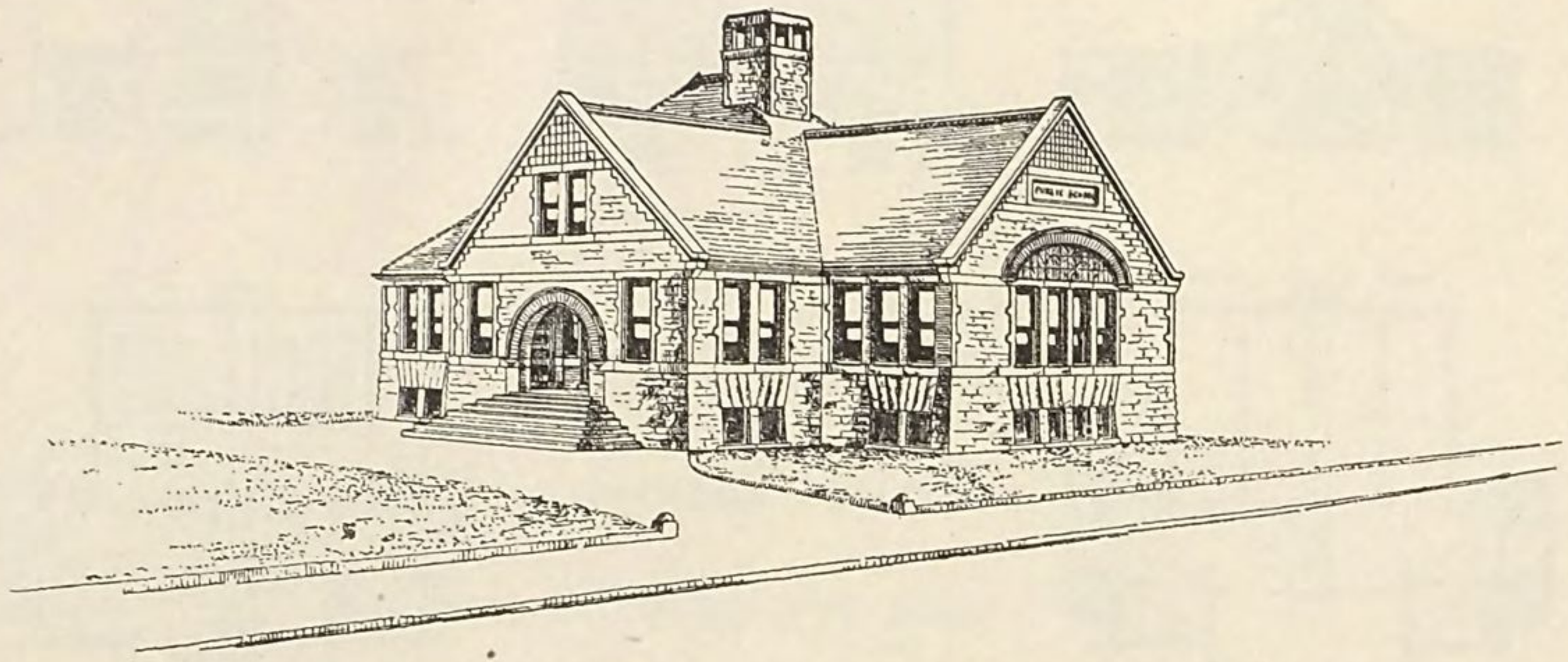
PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

Fig. 36.

PLAN Nº 16

PLATE I

CLASS V



PERSPECTIVE

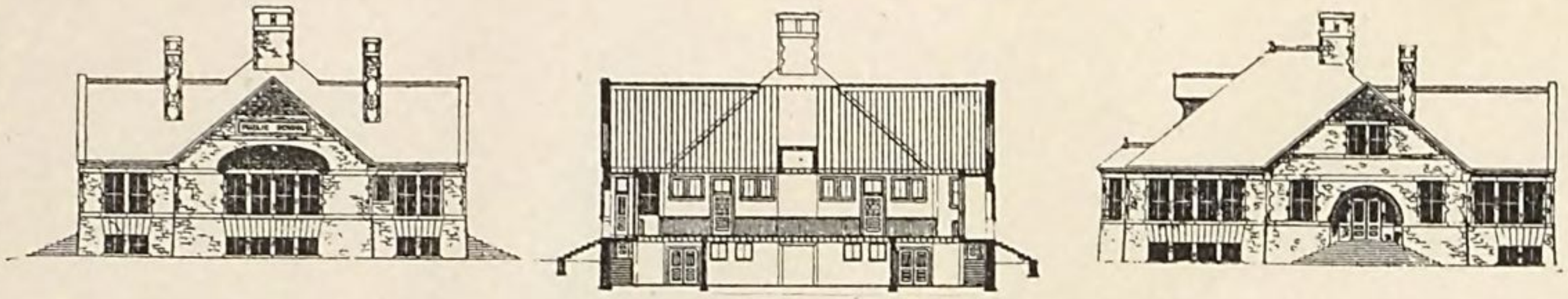
SPECIAL COMMENDATION. Warren R. Briggs. Bridgeport. Conn. ESTIMATED COST $6600

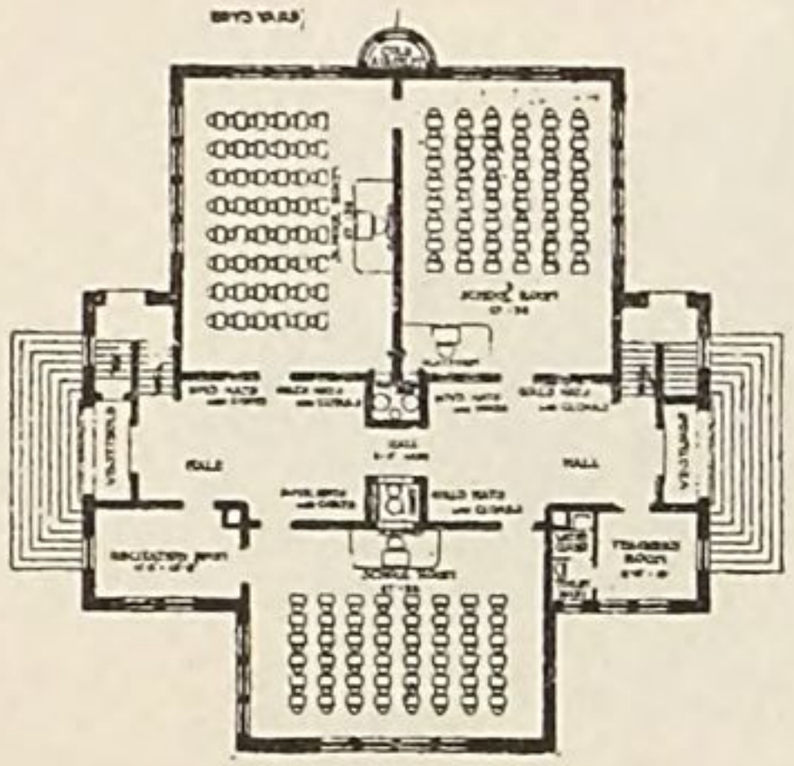
Fig. 37.

PLAN Nº 16

PLATE 2

CLASS V



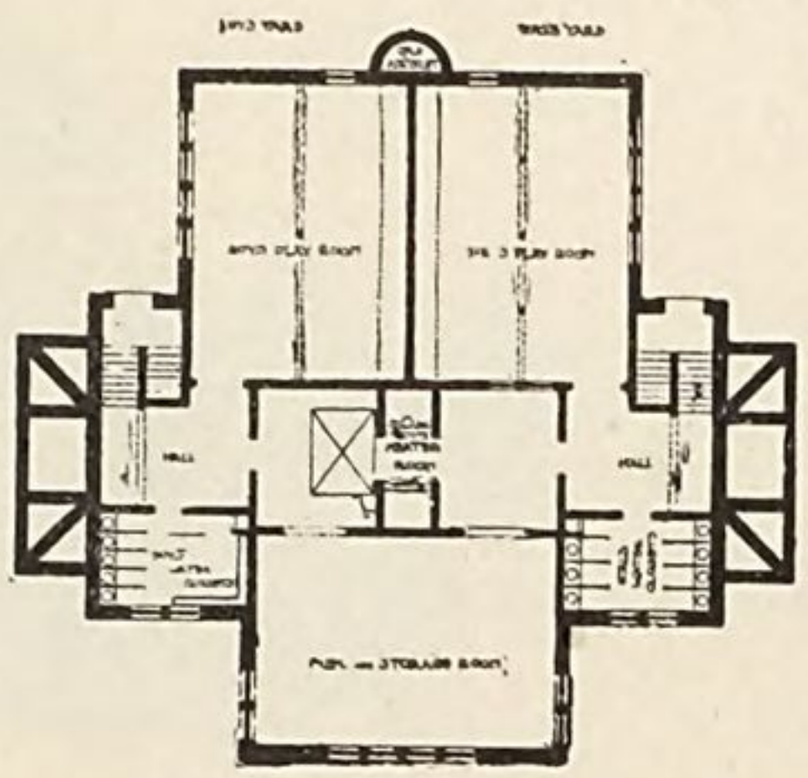


SPECIAL COMMENDATION:

Warren R. Briggs. Bridgeport Conn.

ESTIMATED COST $6600

SCALE 0 5 10 15 20 25 FEET



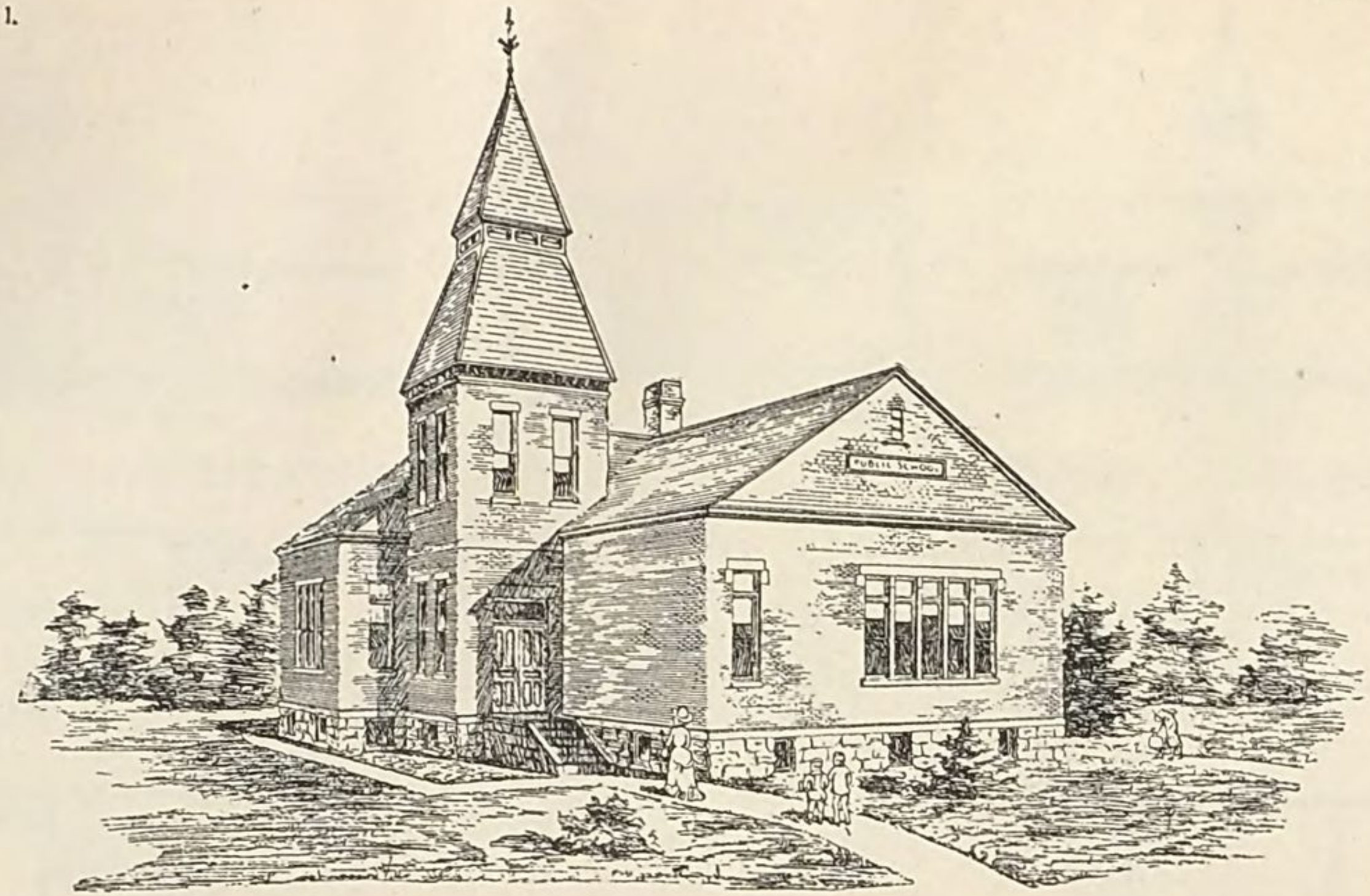
PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

Fig. 38.

PLAN Nº 17.

PLATE 1.

CLASS V.



PERSPECTIVE.

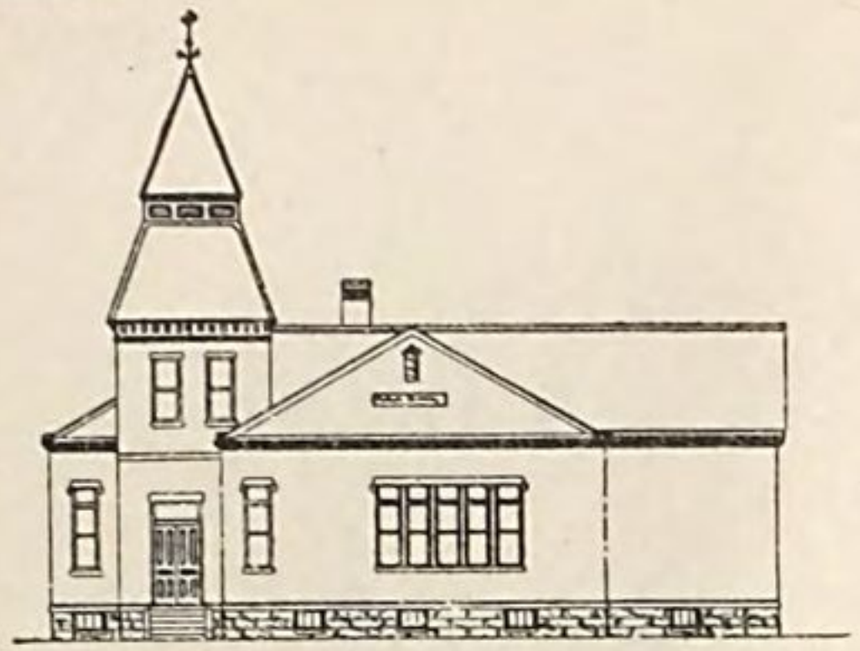
SPECIAL COMMENDATION: Fenimore C. Bate. 29 Evclid Ave. Cleveland. O. ESTIMATED COST $6900.

Fig. 39.

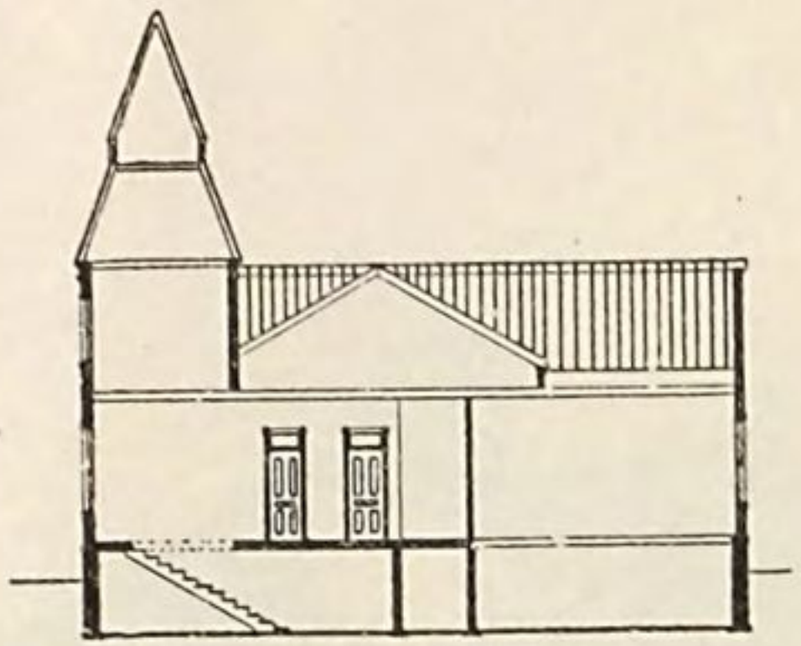
PLAN Nº 17

PLATE 2

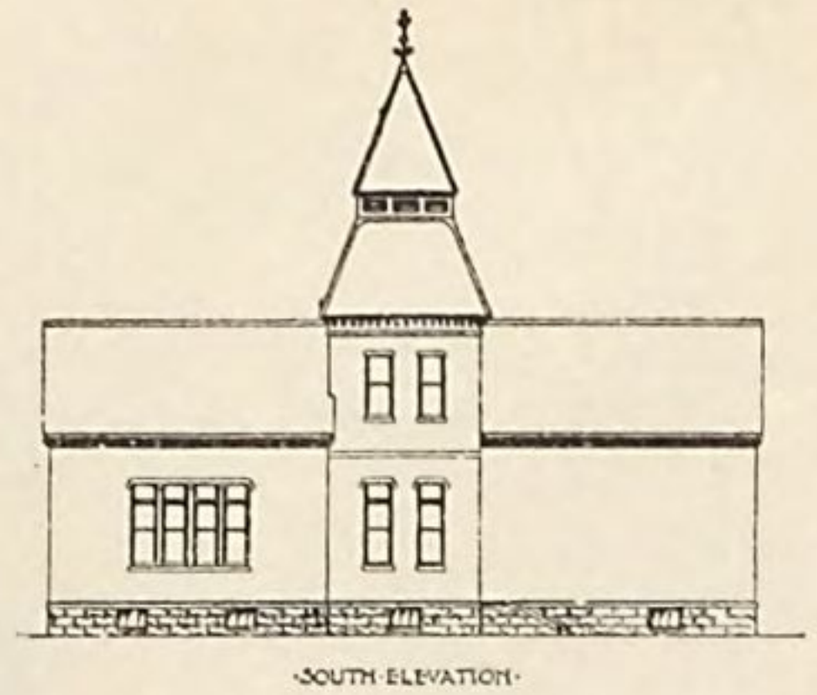
CLASS V



·EAST·ELEVATION·



·TRANSVERSE·SECTION·

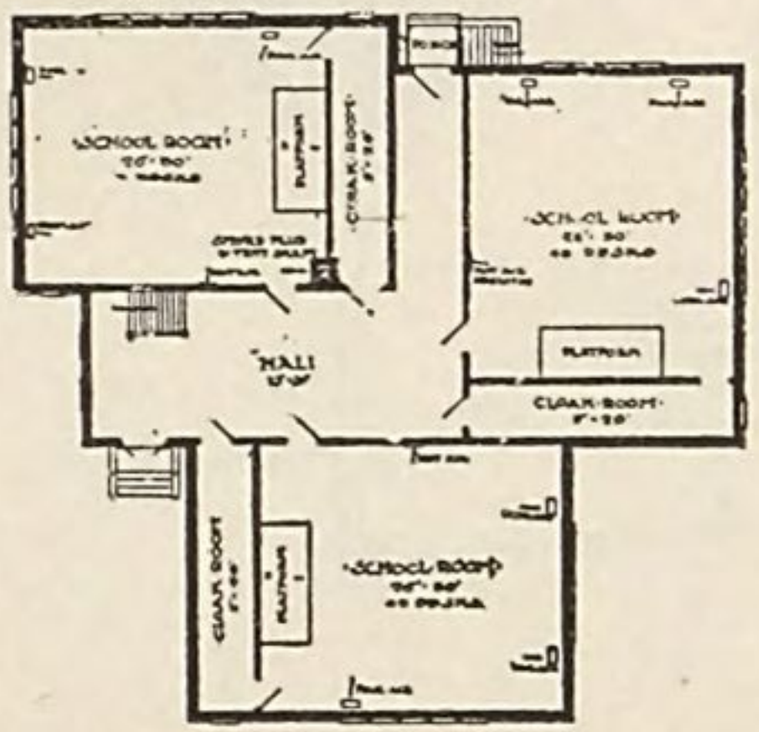


·SOUTH·ELEVATION·

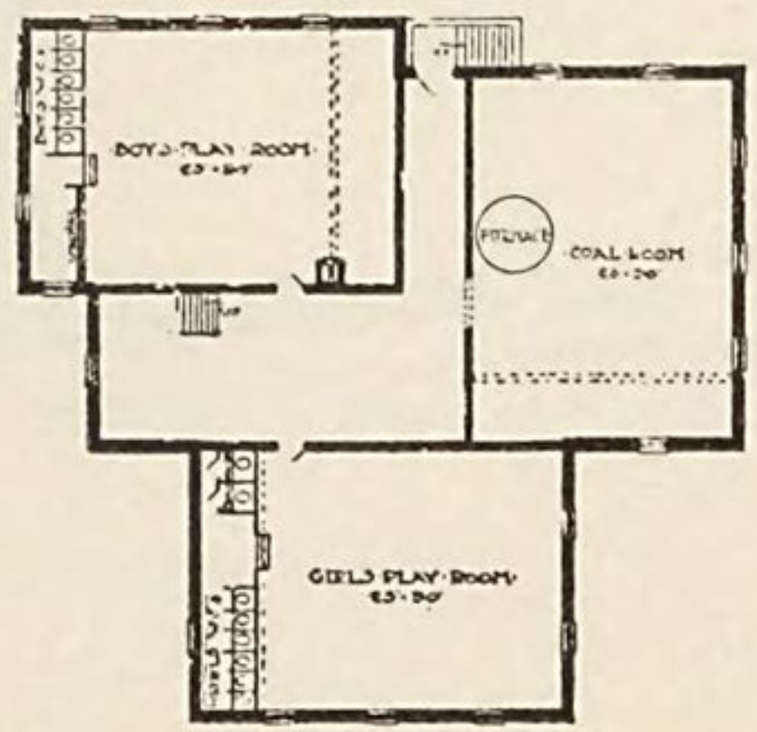
SPECIAL COMMENDATION:

ESTIMATED COST $6900

Fenimore C. Bate. 29 Evclid Ave
Cleveland. O.



·FIRST·STORY·PLAN·



·BASEMENT·PLAN·

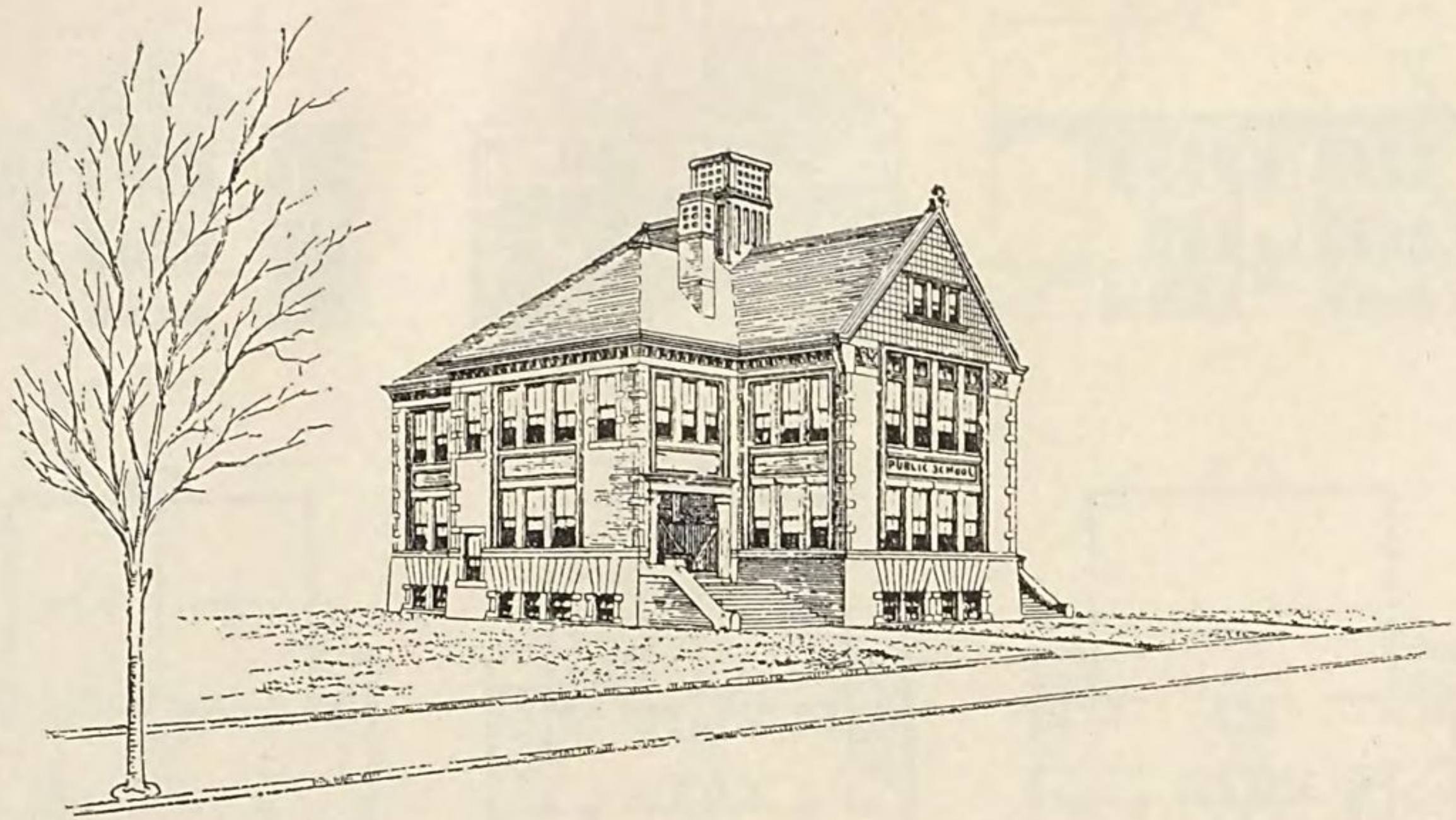
PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

Fig. 40.

PLAN Nº18

PLATE I.

CLASS VI



PERSPECTIVE

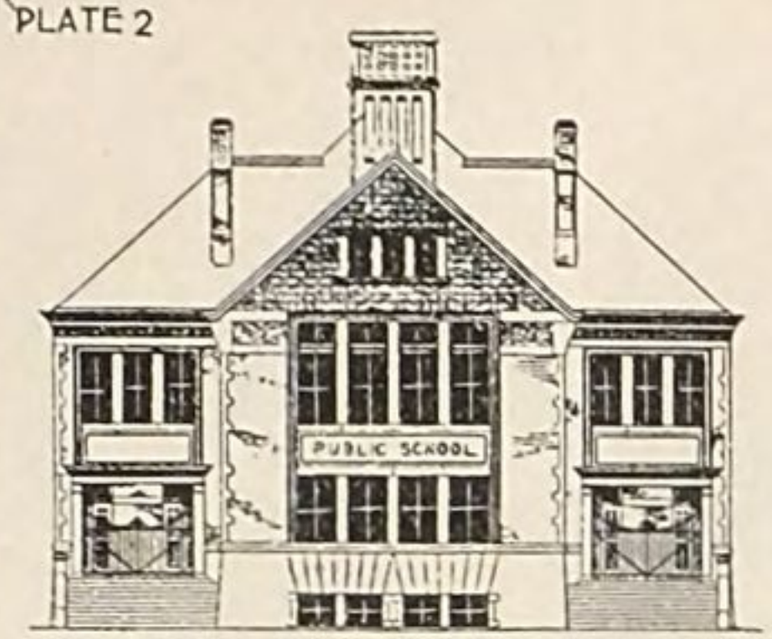
SPECIAL COMMENDATION. Warren R. Briggs. Bridgeport. Conn. ESTIMATED COST. $13000

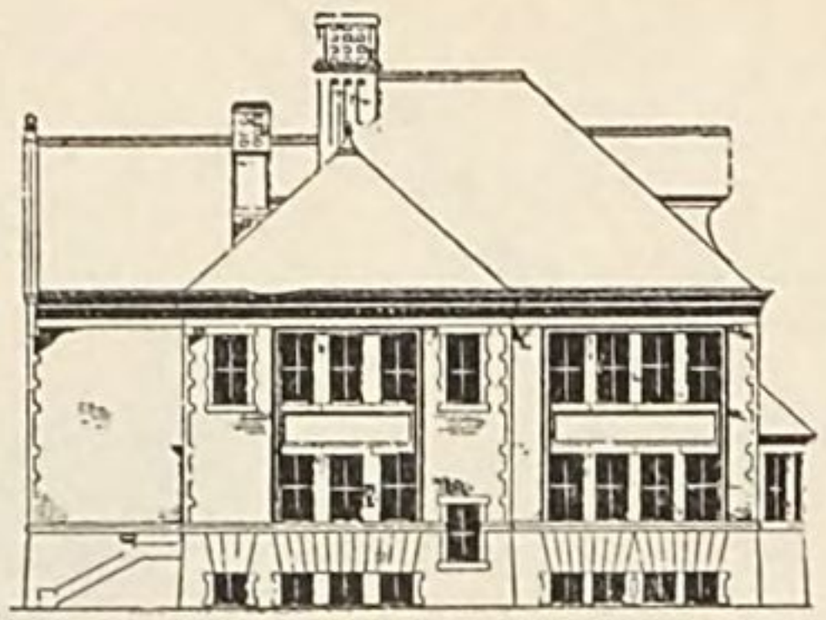
Fig. 41.

PLAN N°18

PLATE 2

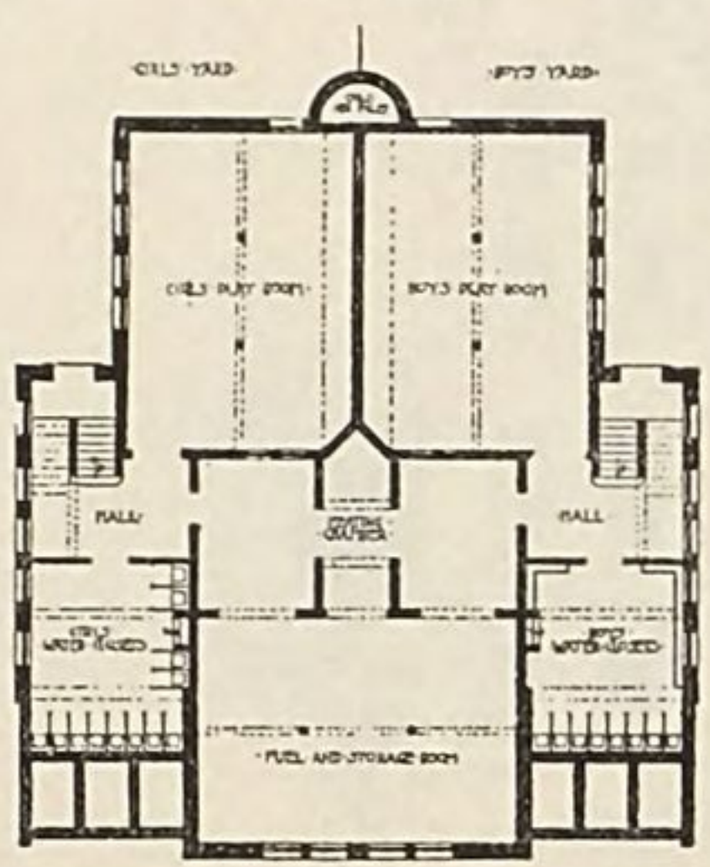
CLASS VI

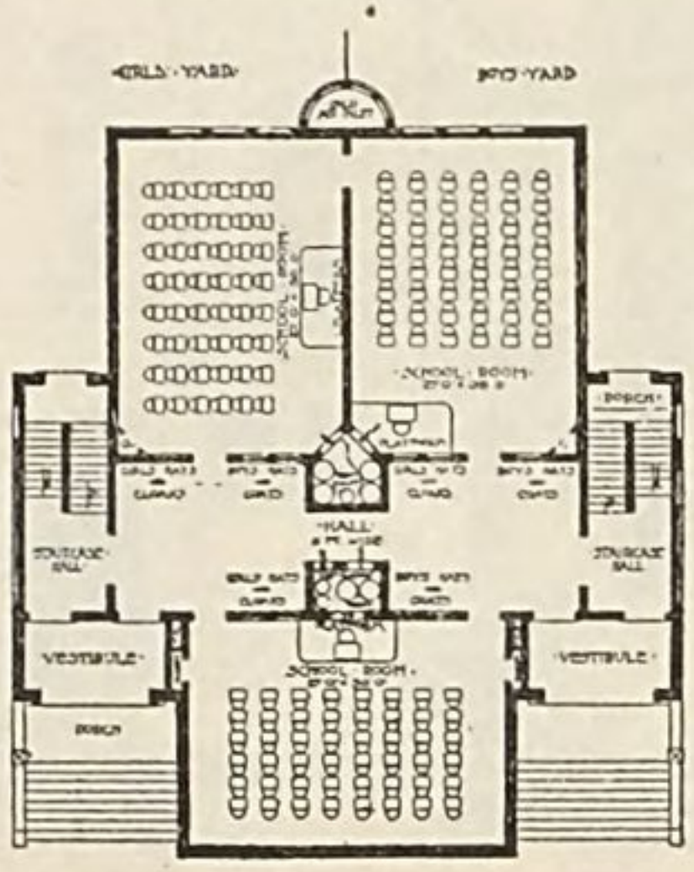


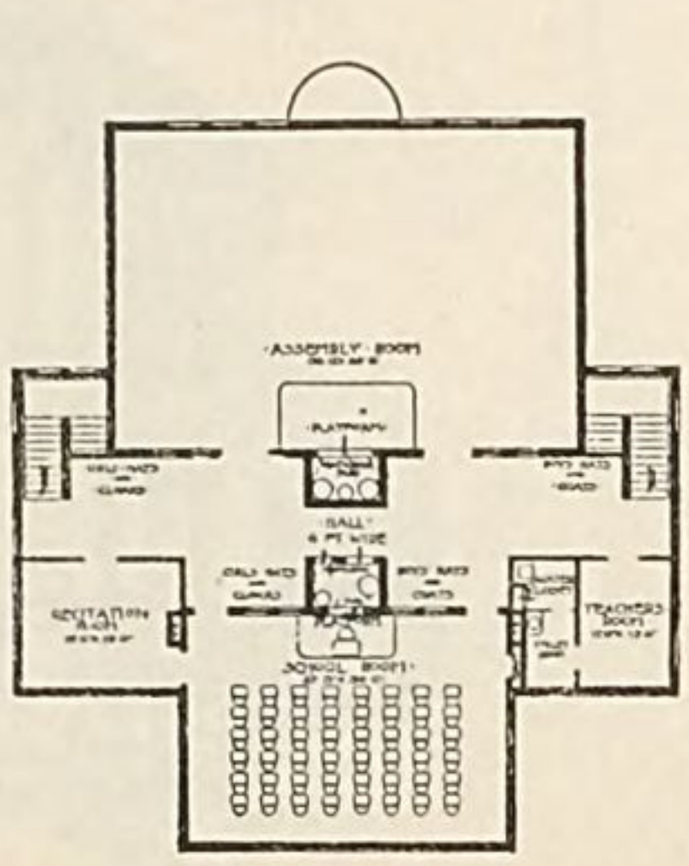


SCALE

0 5 10 15 20 25







SPECIAL COMMENDATION:

Warren R. Briggs. Bridgeport. Conn.

ESTIMATED COST $13000

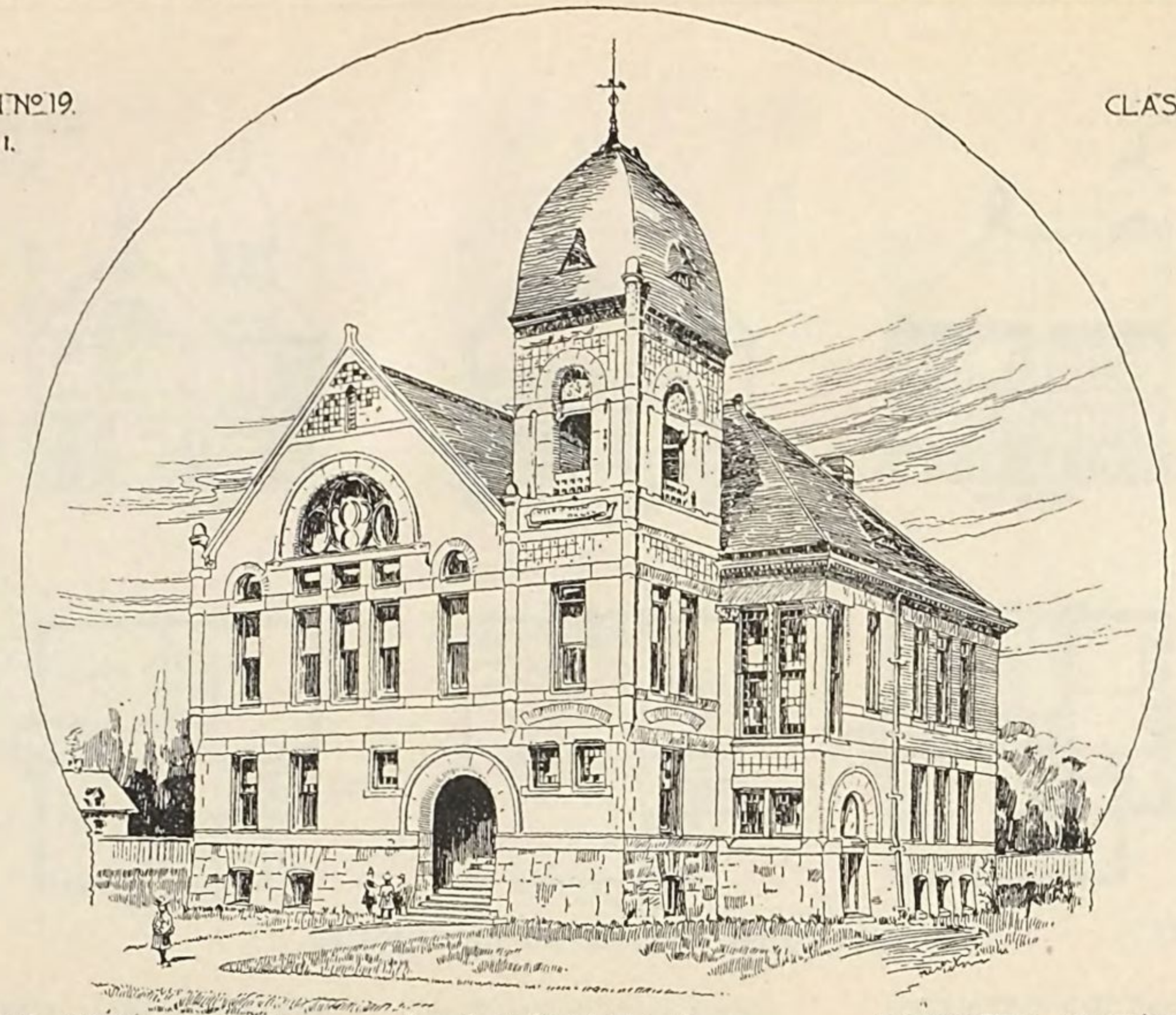
PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

Fig. 42.

PLAN N°19.

PLATE I.

CLASS. VI.



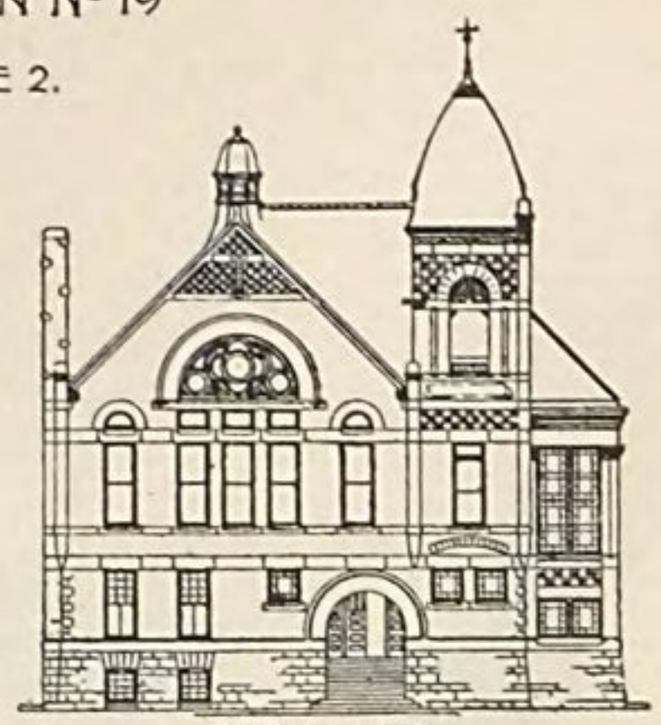
SPECIAL COMMENDATION: Proudfoot & Bird. Wichita. Kansas ESTIMATED COST $16500

Fig. 43.

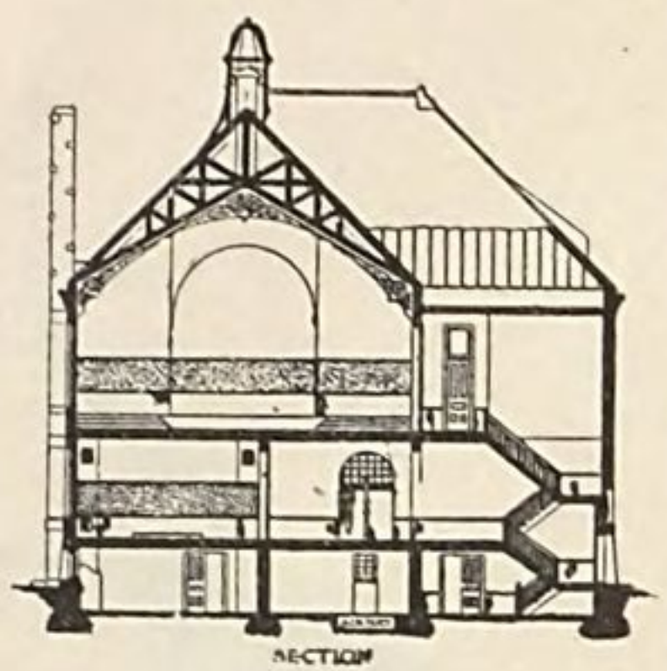
PLAN Nº 19

PLATE 2.

CLASS VI.

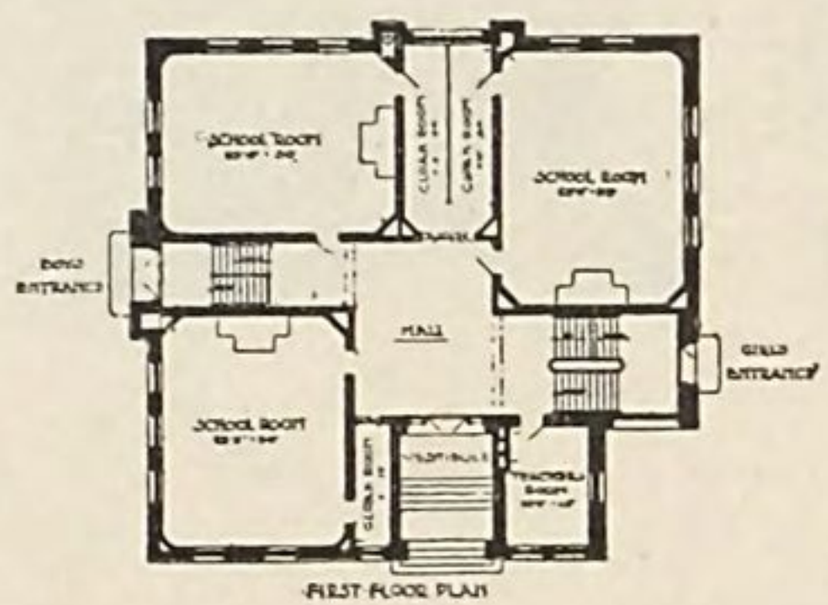


SOUTH ELEVATION

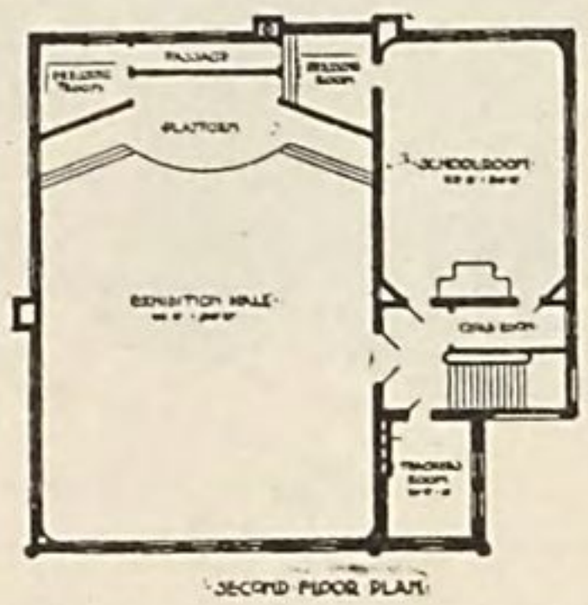


SECTION

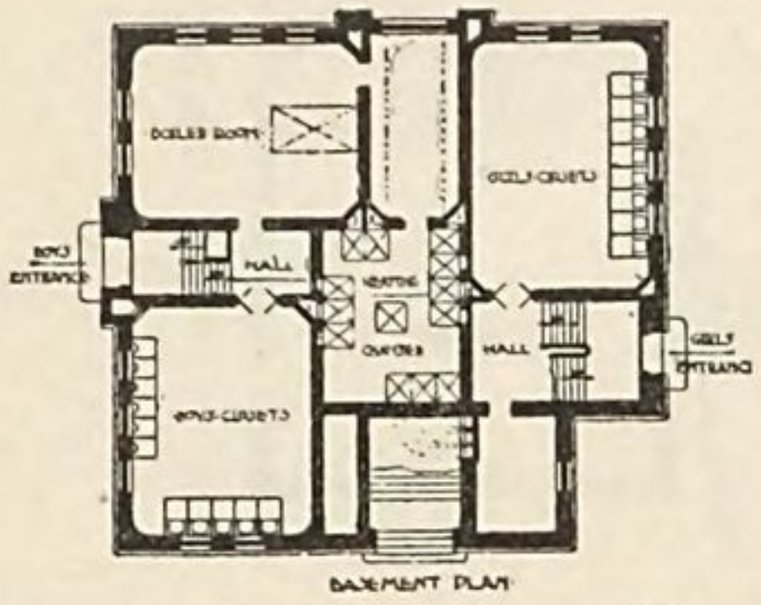
WEST ELEVATION



FIRST FLOOR PLAN



SECOND FLOOR PLAN



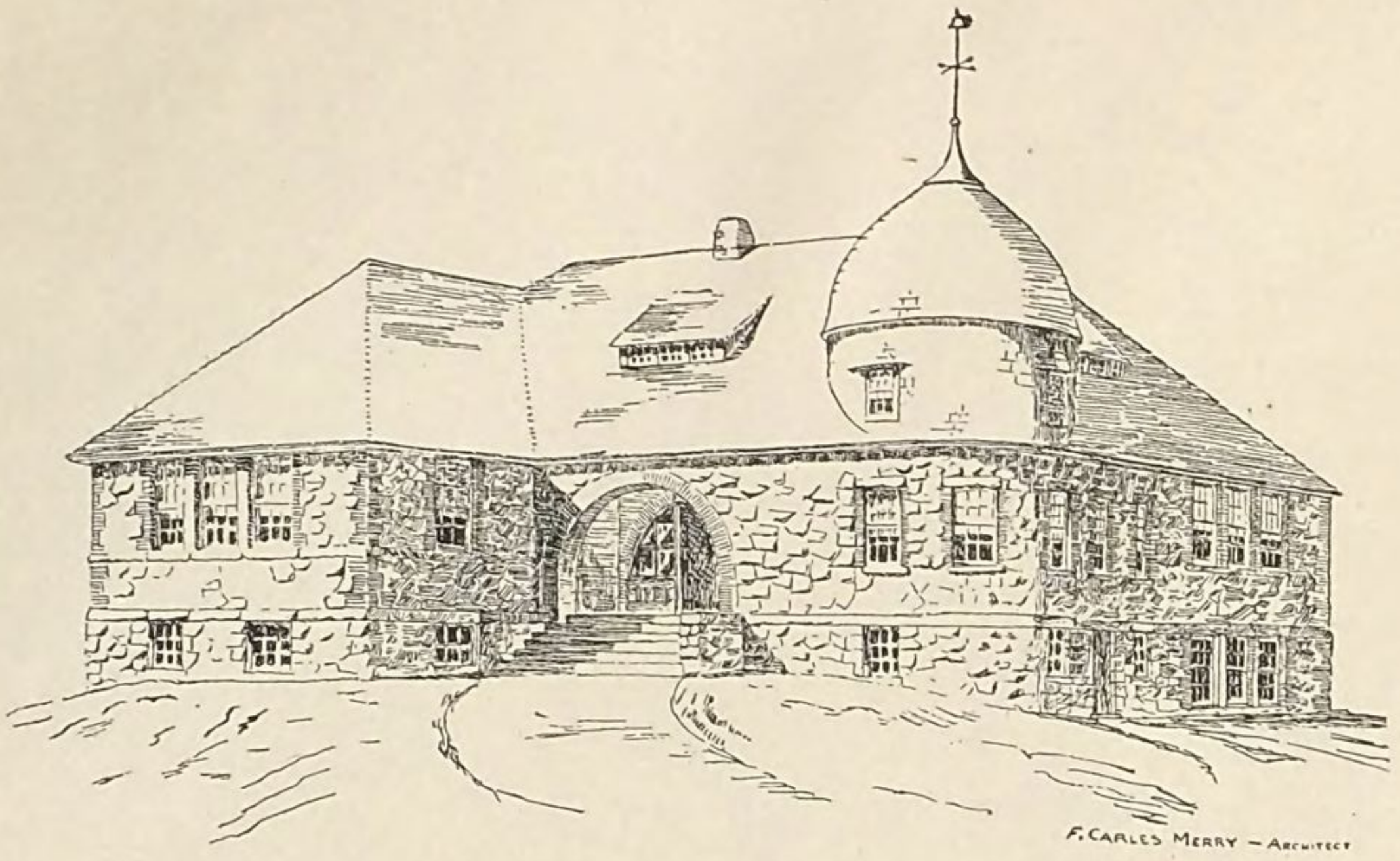
BASEMENT PLAN

SCALE 0 5 10 15 20 25 Feet.

PLANS ELEVATIONS & SECTIONS

SPECIAL COMMENDATION. Proudfoot & Bird. Wichita Kansas ESTIMATED COST $16500.

Fig. 44



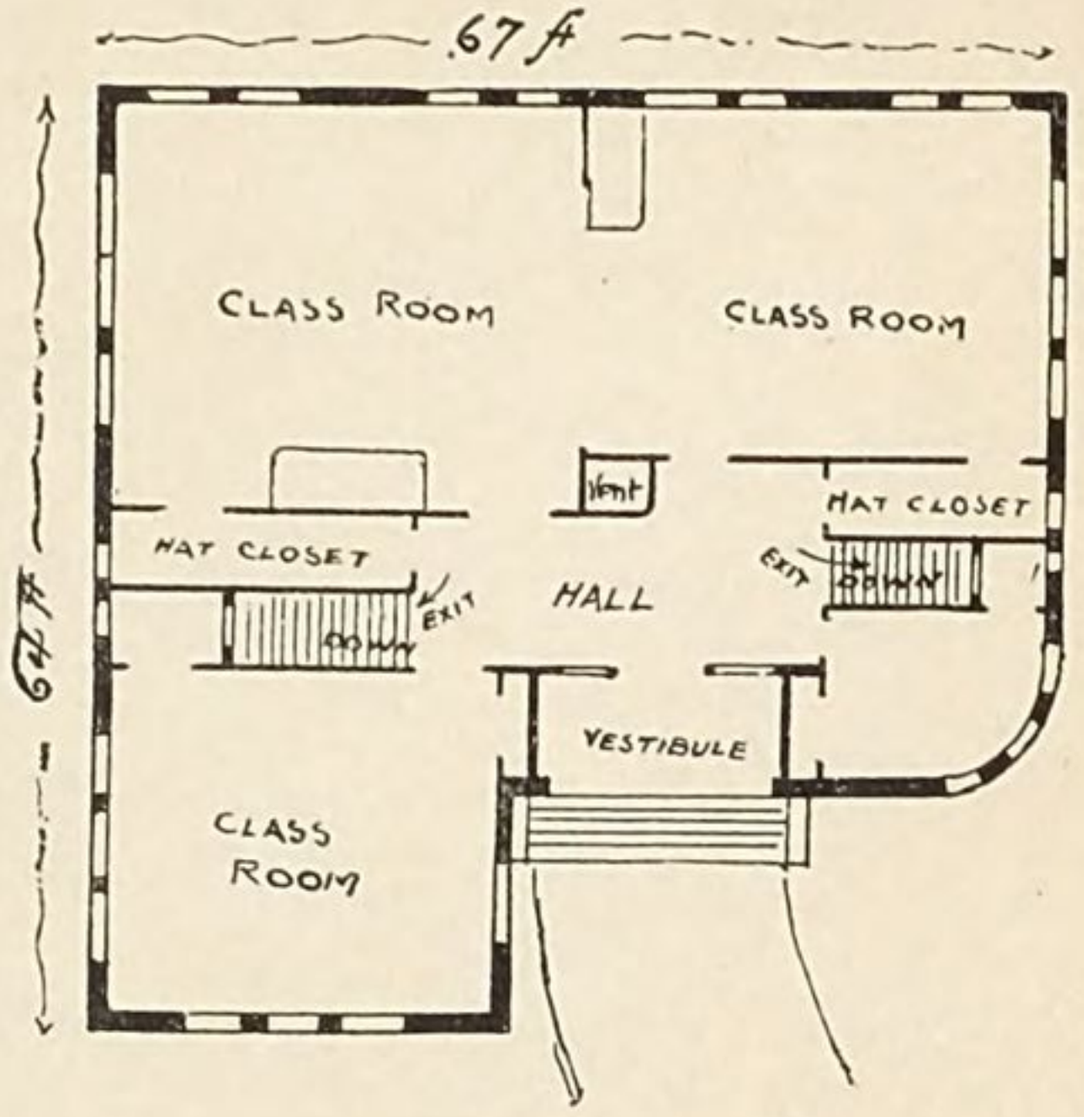


FIG. 45.—Union Free-school building, Pelhamville, N. Y.

Werz.

BSB Bayerische StaatsBibliothek
MDZ Münchener DigitalisierungsZentrum Digitale Bibliothek

Circular of information

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Paed.th. 830-1891,1/3
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